DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 196 902 SP 017 398

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TITLE	Current Problems in Educational Science.
INSTITUTION	World Association for Educational Research, Ghent (Belgium).
PUB DATE	80
NOTE	80p.
AVAILABLE FROM	World Association for Educational Research, Henri Dunantlaan 1, B-9000, Gent, Belgium (No price quoted).
LANGUAGE	French; German; English
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	*Educational Change; Educational Objectives; *Educational Policy; *Educational Research; Foreign Countries; International Educational Exchange; *Mass Instruction; Organizational Objectives; *Sensitivity Training; *Teacher Behavior; Teacher Education
IDENTIFIERS	Finland; Germany; Great Britain

ABSTRACT

At a colloquium held at Gent University in Belgium, educators from various countries presented papers on problems relating to educational research, educational policy, and teacher training. The first paper in this compilation to be presented at the colloquium concerns a clarification of the Unified Socialists Education Act which was the decisive factor for the development of mass education in Germany. The second paper describes the new organization in Finnish teacher education, consisting of Departments of Teacher Education that have been established at every Finnish university as part of the Faculty of Education. The third paper discusses the importance of social sensitivity as a factor in the teaching process. The final paper describes contemporary problems in education using Northern Ireland as an illustrative example. (JN)

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ED196902

ACTUELE PROBLEMEN UIT DE PEDAGOGIEK
CURRENT PROBLEMS IN EDUCATIONAL SCIENCE
PROBLEMES ACTUELS DANS LES SCIENCES DE L'EDUCATION

Internationaal colloquium - Post-graduaat
International meeting - Post-graduation
Collogue international - Post-graduation

Rijksuniversiteit Gent
3 - 4 /IV/ 1979

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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Seminarie en Laboratorium
voor
Experimentele, Psychologische en Sociale Pedagogiek

&

World Association for Educational Research
Association Mondiale des Sciences de l'Education

Editor

PROF. DR. M.-L. VAN HERREWEGHE

SP 017398

FEB 2 1981

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INTRODUCTIE

door

M.-L. VAN HERREWEGHE

(Rijksuniversiteit Gent, België)

It is a pleasure for me to open this Colloqium in our Laboratory at the Gent University.

When last year the Board of the World Association for Educational Research met in Berlin at the Humboldt Universität, as guest of its Rector Prof.Dr.H.Klein, member of the Board, we decided once more to work closely together in order to give the organisation those characteristics which belongs to real education in its responsibility for a more humanising and better world in the promotion of the child and the youngster on one side and "the scientific way of being" with its "in search of thruth" and objectivity in the formulation of the objectives, the defining of the methods and in the translation of its results in practice on the other side.

I hope our guests will allow me to step over now for a few moments into my own language and give me the opportunity to situate this colloqium and its objectives for this auditorium.

Professor Verbist, U ligt mede met Professor Plancke senior aan de oorsprong van deze Wereldorganisatie. "For the best and for the worst" hebt U steeds paraat gestaan om te 'dienen', om het elan te geven dat zonder dit impuls meermaals op een minder ambitieus niveau zou zijn blijven steken. Thans kan onze Universiteit er fier op gaan dat het Centrum van de Wereldorganisatie voor Pedagogiek in 1977, ter gelegenheid van het 7de Wereldcongres in Gent, definitief gevestigd is in onze Faculteit voor Psychologische en Pedagogische Wetenschappen, na jaren heen en weer gaan

in verschillende Europese Universiteiten.
Het Colloqium is georganiseerd in samenwerking met het Post-graduaat waarvoor U verantwoordelijk is.

Het thema "Actuele Problemen uit de Pedagogiek" werd gekozen om aan de eminente sprekers, die tijdens deze paar voormiddagen zullen het woord nemen, de gelegenheid te laten om ons enkele typische problemen uit hun research, uit hun eigen onderzoeksterrein in hun respectievelijke universiteiten, pedagogische academie of research centrum naar voor te brengen en voor ons eventueel ter discussie aan te bieden.
Vanzelfsprekend zullen er slechts een paar momenten aan bod komen uit de pedagogische problematiek van nu, meer vragen dan voorheen zullen misschien resteren of opwellen nadien. Tijdens dit Colloqium zullen dus enkele problemen slechts worden belicht uit de pedagogische wetenschappen zoals die nu in de Universiteiten in D.D.R., Finland, Noorwegen en Groot-Brittannië het voorwerp uitmaken van onderzoek. Ze hebben betrekking op het vormingswezen, de lerarenopleiding en haar research en op de niet te miskennen sociale factor in het onderwijsproces.

We weten het: Pedagogiek als mens-gebonden wetenschap bij uitstek, kan niet los worden gedacht van de veroveringen die de mensheid heeft tot stand gebracht en waarvoor ze de verantwoordelijkheid draagt om ze als beschavings- en cultuurgoederen te bewaren en door te geven. Maar tevens is haar mens-betrokkenheid van die aard dat het voorwerp van haar studie "het kind", zijn toekomst en alles wat tot het wezen mens behoort of dit benadert, in haar opgave betrokken wordt.
"Problemen uit de Pedagogiek nu" wijst naar een wetenschappelijke activiteit die zowel een theoretisch georiënteerd als een praktisch geörienteerd research insluit.
De onderwerpen houden met beide vormen verband.

De pedagogische problematiek en haar research-werk maakt - we weten het - een eerder nooit gekende omwenteling mee. Alles wordt in vraag gesteld, de familie, de school, de maatschappij ... en vaak het kind zelf.
Pedagogiek wordt geconfronteerd met fundamentele structurele en intrinsieke problemen zoals de zich wijzigende opvattingen omtrent

haar functie en invloed op de ontwikkeling van het kind, omtrent de relatie opvoeding-maatschappij, de rol van de beheersorganen, de participatie-mogelijkheden van de opvoedeling en haar betekenis voor de vorming van een mensbeeld dat zich reeds situeert in de XXIe eeuw.
Deze belangrijke verschuivingen in de opvattingen van kind - mens en maatschappij verscherpen de noodzaak aan pedagogisch research, samen met de noodzaak aan vorming van pedagogen, leraars, opvoeders of hoe ze ook noemen, die een participerende rol kunnen vervullen in de praktijk, waar ze geleid worden op hun beurt door een wetenschappelijke motivatie voor hun handelen en het beleid ervan, en waarbij vanuit de praktijk de research geappeleerd wordt door zich aandienende problemen.

Een paar problemen slechts uit deze rijke opdracht zullen nu aan bod komen.

INTRODUCTION

by

M.-L. VAN HERREWEGHE

(Rijksuniversiteit Gent, België)

It is a pleasure for me to open this Colloqium in our Laboratory at the Gent University.

When last year the Board of the World Association for Educational Research met in Berlin at the Humboldt Universität, as guest of its Rector Prof.Dr.H.Klein, member of the Board, we decided once more to work closely together in order to give the organisation those characteristics which belongs to real education in its responsibility for a more humanising and better world in the promotion of the child and the youngster on one side and "the scientific way of being" with its "in search of thruth" and objectivity in the formulation of the objectives, the defining of the methods and in translation of its results in practice on the other side. I hope our guests will allow me to step over now for a few moments into my own language and give me the opportunity to situate this colloqium and its objectives for this auditorium.

In translation:

Professor Verbist, together with Professor Dr.R.L.Plancke you lie at the origin of this World Association. For the best and for the worst you have always been prepared to "serve" and you have been its driving force; without it, the Association would often have come to a dead stop on a less ambitious level. Today, our University can be proud that at the occasion of the 7th World Congress in Gent the Centre of the World Association for Educational Research has been definitely established in our Faculty of

Psychological and Educational Sciences, after having moved from one european university to another.
The colloqium has been organized with the help of the Post-graduate course which is your responsibility.

The theme "Current problems in educational science" has been chosen to give our eminent lecturers, who will take the floor during these few mornings, the opportunity to deal with some typical research problems from their own research domain in their respective universities, pedagogical academies or research centres, and to eventually start a discussion on these topics with us.
Of course, only a few aspects of current educational problems will be tackled, and more questions than before will perhaps remain or rise afterwards. During this colloqium a limited number of problems in educational science will be discussed, as they form the object of research in the Universities of the D.D.R., Finland, Norway and Great Britain. They are related to educational policy, teacher training and its research and to the undeniable social factor in the educational process.

We all know it: education, as the human science par excellence, cannot be detached from the innovation of mankind and the preservation and communication of these cultural goods remains mankind's responsibility. Moreover, its close relationship with man is of such a nature that the object of its research, the child, its future, and anything which belongs to the human kind, forms a part of its task.
"Current problems of educational science" implies scientific activities which are of theoretical nature as well as of practical nature.
The subjects are related with both of these forms.

Problems of education and educational research - we all aknowledge this - is in the middle of a never-known revolution. Questions are raised about everything: family, school, society ... and often the child itself.
Education is confronted with fundamental, structural and intrinsic problems, such as the changing attitudes towards its function and influence on the child, the relation education-society, the role of policy, participation opportunities of the child, and its significance for the formation of a man of the 21th century.

These important changes in the conceptions of child, man and society sharpen the necessity of educational research, and of the formation of educationists, educators, teachers, or what else you want to call them, who can play a participating role in the practical work, where they are lead by a scientific motivation for their behaviour and its policy, and where from practice the research is reminded by rising problems.

Only a few problems from this rich task will now be dealt with.

INTRODUCTION

par

M.-L. VAN HERREWEGHE

(Rijksuniversiteit Gent, België)

En traduction de l'Anglais:

C'est un honneur et un plaisir de pouvoir ouvrir ce Colloque dans notre Laboratoire à l'Université de Gent.

Lorsque l'année précédente, le Bureau de l'Association Mondiale des Sciences de l'Education s'est rencontré à Berlin à l'Université Humboldt, comme hôte de son Recteur le Prof.Dr.H.Klein, nous avons décidé, une fois de plus, de travailler fermement ensemble afin de donner à l'organisation ces caractéristiques qui sont propres à la vraie éducation et qui s'expriment dans une prise de responsabilité pour un monde plus humanisant et meilleur dans la promotion de l'enfant et des jeunes d'une part et d'autre part dans un travail qui cherche de pouvoir être qualifié de vraiment scientifique dans sa recherche de la vérité et l'objectivité, dans la formulation des objectifs, la définition de ses méthodes et dans la traduction de ses résultats dans la pratique.

J'espère que nos hôtes me permettront de m'exprimer durant quelques moments dans ma propre langue et de me donner l'occasion de situer ce colloque et ses objectifs devant cet auditoire.

En traduction du Néerlandais:

Monsieur le Professeur Verbist, en collaboration avec le Professeur Dr. R.L.Plancke, vous êtes à l'origine de cette Association

Mondiale. Dans le mieux et dans le pire, vous avez toujours été prêt à "servir" et vous avez été la force motrice, sans laquelle l'Association se serait, sans aucun doute, arrêtée à un niveau beaucoup moins ambitieux. Aujourd'hui, notre Université peut être fière qu'à l'occasion du 7e Congrès Mondial à Gent, le Centre de l'Association Mondiale des Sciences de l'Education a été établi définitivement dans notre Faculté des Sciences Psychologiques et Pédagogiques, après avoir passé d'une université européenne à une autre.
Le présent colloque a pu être organisé avec l'aide du cours de post-graduation qui dépend de votre responsabilité.

Le thème "Problèmes actuels dans les sciences de l'éducation" a été choisi afin de donner à nos éminents conférenciers, qui prendront la parole pendant ces quelques matinées, l'occasion de traiter de quelques problèmes de recherche typique, choisis dans leur spécialisation expérimentale, de leurs universités, academies pédagogiques ou Centres de recherche respectifs et d'entamer une discussion sur ces sujets. Evidemment, quelques aspects seulement des problèmes pédagogiques courants seront discutés, et probablement le nombre de questions dépassera celui des solutions obtenues. Durant ce colloque un nombre limité des problèmes des sciences de l'éducation seront discutés. Il s'agira de problèmes tels qu'ils se présentent dans les Universités du D.D.R., de la Finlande, du Norvège, de la Grande Bretagne. Ils se situent dans le domaine des objectifs et structures pédagogiques, de la formation des enseignants, de la recherche dans la matière, tout en attribuant une attention particulière au facteur social qui est d'une valeur indéniable dans le processus pédagogique.

Nous le savons tous: l'éducation en tant que science humaine par excellence, est étroitement liée à tout ce qui concerne l'innovation, et préservation de l'humanité et la communication des biens culturels parce qu'ils sont placés sous la responsabilité de l'humanité. Ce qui est plus, sa relation étroite avec l'homme est d'une telle nature que l'objet de sa recherche, l'enfant, son futur et tout ce qui se rapporte à l'espèce humaine, forme une partie de sa tâche. "Problèmes actuels des sciences de l'éducation" implique des activités scientifiques aussi bien de nature théorique que de nature pratique. Les sujets sont en relation avec les deux formes.

Problèmes de pédagogie et recherche pédagogique, nous le savons, sont au centre d'une révolution inconnue jusqu'à présent. Tout est mis en question: la famille, l'école, la société et souvent l'enfant lui-même.
L'éducation est confrontée avec des problèmes fondamentaux, structurels et intrinsiques, tels que l'attitude changeante envers sa fonction et son influence sur l'enfant, le rapport éducation-société, le rôle de la politique, les opportunités de participation de la part de l'enfant, et son importance pour la formation de l'homme du 21e siècle.
Ces changements importants dans la conception de l'enfant, de l'homme et de la société exigent davantage la recherche pédagogique et la formation de pédagogues, éducateurs et enseignants, quelque soit le nom que l'on veut donner à ceux qui peuvent jouer un rôle de participation dans le travail pratique, travail où ils doivent être guidés par une motivation scientifique dans leur comportement et dans la politique suivie et où la recherche d'autre part est posée devant des problèmes sortant de la pratique de tous les jours.

De cette riche tâche ce ne sera qu'un nombre restraint de problèmes qui seront traités durant ce colloque.

ERFAHRUNGEN AUS EINER REFORM DES BILDUNGSWESENS

bei

H. KLEIN

(Humboldt Universität, Berlin, D.D.R.)

In der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik (DDR) sind mehrere, zum Teil weitreichende, Schulreformen durchgeführt worden. Seit 1965 gibt es eine relativ stabile Situation.[1] In diesem Jahr wurde das "Gesetz über das einheitliche sozialistische Bildungssystem" verabschiedet, nach dem das Bildungssystem folgende Gestalt haben sollte.

Folie 1: Das einheitliche sozialistische Bildungssystem der DDR nach dem Gesetz von 1965

Mit diesem Gesetz haben wir in wichtigen Fragen der Bildungspolitik, die auch international stark in der Diskussion waren und noch sind, ganz bestimmte Entscheidungen getroffen und bestimmte pädagogische Absichten verwirklicht. Auf einen kurzen Nenner gebracht, gehören dazu die folgenden:

1. Wir wollten für alle Kinder - auf freiwilliger Grundlage - eine qualifizierte Vorschulerziehung in staatlichen Kindergärten (ganztägig) für drei Jahre (3-6 jährige) vor Schulbeginn verwirklichen. Für die Zeit davor sollten ganztägige Kinderkrippen für *die* Kinder in grösserem Umfang zur Verfügung stehen, deren Eltern von dieser Möglichkeit Gebrauch machen wollen.

2. Eine zehnklassige, einheitliche Schule wurde als Pflichtschule für alle Kinder eingeführt. Diese Schule sollte eine relativ hohe allgemeine Bildung mit "polytechnischem Charakter" vermitteln und als Grundlage *aller* weiterführenden Bildungs-

wese wirksam werden. In der Bezeichnung "Oberschule" kommt zum Ausdruck, dass ein relativ hoher Anspruch verwirklicht werden sollte, und zwar für *alle* Kinder und Jugendlichen.

3. Im Bildungsgesetz von 1965 wurde festgelegt, dass *alle* Absolventen der zehnklassigen Oberschule, soweit sie nicht weiterführende Schulen besuchen, eine qualifizierte Berufsausbildung von in der Regel zwei Jahre erhalten. Diese Berufsausbildung hat als Ziel den Facharbeiter mit relativ breitem berufstheoretischem und berufspraktischem Profil. Dieser Entscheidung liegt die Auffassung zugrunde, dass die "allseitige und harmonische Entwicklung der Persönlichkeit" - allgemeinstes Erziehungsziel in der sozialistischen Gesellschaft - zweierlei umfassen muss:
   a) eine für alle weitgehend gleiche, allgemeine Bildung
   b) spezielle, vor allem berufliche Bildung in Übereinstimmung mit individuellen Interessen, Neigungen und Begabungen und speziellen gesellschaftlichen Bedürfnissen.

   Wir waren und sind der Auffassung, dass es zwischen allgemeiner, gleicher Bildung und spezieller (beruflicher) Bildung enge, wechselseitige Beziehungen gibt, die man pädagogisch im Sinne der allseitigen Persönlichkeitsentwicklung stärker nutzen muss.

4. Es wurden mehrere Möglichkeiten einer Vorbereitung auf den Besuch einer Universität oder Hochschule geschaffen.
   Die Hochschulreife (Abitur) kann man in der DDR seit 1965 auf folgenden Wegen erwerben:
   a) in einer zweijährigen "erweiterten Oberschule" nach der zehnklassigen Pflichtschule
   b) in einer dreijährigen Kombination von Berufsausbildung und erweiterter allgemeiner Bildung nach der zehnklassigen Pflichtschule
      Abschluss: Abitur und Facharbeiterqualifikation
   c) auf dem Weg: zehnklassige Pflichtschule - Berufsausbildung - Fachschule - Hochschule
   d) in Formen der Erwachsenenqualifizierung (Volkshochschulen, Betriebsakademien, Abendschulen) einschliesslich Vorkurse an bestimmten, vor allem technischen Hochschulen.

Die Hoch- und Fachschulen gelten eindeutig als höchste Stufen

unseres Bildungssystems bestimmt, in denen Menschen für solche beruflichen Tätigkeiten ausgebildet werden, die ein Hochschulstudium als Voraussetzung benötigen. Universitäten und Hochschulen sind in diesem Sinne in der DDR Einrichtungen der Berufsausbildung und nicht die höchste Stufe allgemeiner Bildung. Diese Feststellung darf nicht falsch verstanden werden. Natürlich erweitert ein Hochschulstudium die Allgemeinbildung der Studenten beträchtlich und verläuft das Studium nach dem Prinzip der Einheit von Lehre und Forschung anders als in einer Berufsschule. Aber die Studenten studieren mit dem Ziel, die Voraussetzungen für sehr qualifizierte berufliche Tätigkeiten zu erwerben.

5. Durch das Bildungsgesetz von 1965 wurden kräftige Impulse für eine permanente, lebenslange Bildung gegeben. Es existieren zahlreiche Formen der Erwachsenenqualifizierung und es sollten Formen einer regelmässigen obligatorischen Weiterbildung für eine zunehmende Zahl von beruflichen Tätigkeiten eingeführt werden (ärztliche Fortbildung, Zyklus der Weiterbildung aller Lehrer im Abstand von vier Jahren usw.).

6. Für das gesamte Bildungssystem gilt - wie für alle Bereiche der sozialistischen Gesellschaft - das Gesetz der planmässigen, proportionalen Entwicklung. Kindergarten, zehnklassige Oberschule und Berufsausbildung, also eine insgesamt mindestens 15 jährige Ausbildungspflicht für alle Heranwachsenden zu verwirklichen, das erforderte grosse materielle, personelle und finanzielle Aufwendungen. Da alle Formen der Bildung unentgeltlich sind, müssen diese Aufwendungen durch den Staat, vor allem aus den Gewinnen der volkseigenen Betriebe, gedeckt werden. Es musste also gesichert werden, dass unsere Wirtschaft diese gewaltigen Mittel für die Bildung zur Verfügung stellen kann.

   Ausgehend von den gegenwärtigen Bedürfnissen und Möglichkeiten unserer Gesellschaft und zumindest mittelfristigen Prozessen sind wir davon ausgegangen, dass ca. 22 - 25 % eines Jahrgangs eine Hoch- oder Fachschulausbildung erwerben muss, um den objektiven Bedarf in den entsprechenden Berufsgruppen befrie-

digen zu können. Die Zahl der Studienplätze insgesamt und ihre Aufteilung auf die einzelnen Fachrichtungen wurde entsprechend in der zentralen Volkswirtschaftsplanung einschliesslich der Stipendiensumme für die Studenten festgelegt. (Fast 90 % aller Studenten erhalten ein von ihnen nicht zurückzuzahlendes Stipendium).
Wir entschieden uns dafür, die Zahl der Abiturienten bzw. die Zahl der Plätze in den verschiedenen zur Hochschulreife führenden Wege in weitgehender Übereinstimmung mit der Zahl der benötigten Studenten festzulegen. Für alle Ausbildungsformen nach der zehnklassigen Oberschule gilt ferner nach dem Prinzip der planmässigen, proportionalen Entwicklung, dass für jede Ausbildungsrichtung die Zahl der Ausbildungsplätze festgelegt wird in Übereinstimmung mit dem objektiven Bedarf und den objektiven Möglichkeiten.

Da es vom Charakter der sozialistischen Gesellschaftsordnung her prinzipiell ausgeschlossen ist, dass jemals *Arbeitslosigkeit* existiert, sondern im Gegenteil mit einem permanenten Arbeitskräftemangel gerechnet werden kann, muss die Festlegung der Ausbildungsplätze in der Berufsausbildung bzw. der Studienplätze in den verschiedenen Studienrichtungen von einer ausgewogenen Abschätzung der Dringlichkeit der jeweiligen Berufstätigkeit her erfolgen. Wir benötigen z.B. sehr viele Baufacharbeiter, um das sehr umfangreiche Wohnungsbauprogramm erfüllen zu können, sehr viele Lehrer und Kindergärtnerinnen für die volle Realisierung des Bildungsgesetzes. Wir könnten viel mehr Arbeitskräfte in der Gastronomie und in anderen Service-berufen beschäftigen, lassen aber in diesem Bereich die Zahl der Ausbildungsplätze nur allmählich steigen, um zu sichern, dass z.B. unbedingt die geplante Zahl der Baufacharbeiter erreicht wird. Es gilt also, bestimmte, durch die Bedürfnisse der Gesamtvolkswirtschaft gesetzte Prioritäten zu beachten. Eine derartige zentrale Planung hat viele Vorteile. Sie sichert *jedem* Absolventen der zehnklassigen Oberschule einen Platz in der Berufsausbildung, *jedem* Abiturienten einen Studienplatz und *allen* Bürgern mindestens einen ihrer Qualifikation entsprechenden Arbeitsplatz. Das Recht auf Bildung und das Recht auf Arbeit werden dadurch als Einheit verwirklicht. Sie wirft aber das

komplizierte Problem auf, ob die subjektiven Wünsche mit den angebotenen Möglichkeiten übereinstimmen, ob bzw. wie dies zu erreichen ist. Wir haben 1965 diese Frage positiv beantwortet und die Überzeugung zum Ausdruck gebracht, dass durch pädagogische Führung die weitgehende Übereinstimmung von subjektiven Berufs- und Ausbildungswünschen und objektiven Möglichkeiten zu erreichen ist.

7. Ausgehend von eigenen und internationalen Erfahrungen hatten wir die Überzeugung gewonnen, dass eine so weitreichende Reform bzw. Neugestaltung des Bildungswesens nur erfolgreich sein kann, wenn sie mit einer Neubestimmung des *Inhaltes* der Bildung verbunden ist. Deshalb wurden alle vorhandenen wissenschaftlichen Potentiale auf die Ausarbeitung neuer Lehrpläne konzentriert. Besonderes Augenmerk richteten wir darauf, diese Pläne für die verschiedenen Stufen des Bildungssystems als Einheit und dabei vor allem die Übergänge, z.B. vom Kindergarten zur Schule, von der Schule zur Berufsausbildung, von der Abiturstufe zur Universität, von der Berufsausbildung oder den Universitäten, Hoch- und Fachschulen zur Berufspraxis "nahtlos" zu gestalten. Welche Ergebnisse wurden nun in den 14 Jahren seit 1965 erreicht, welche Erfahrungen konnten dabei gesammelt werden und welche neuen Probleme werden sichtbar ?

Ich will im folgenden über einige berichten, die alle durch entsprechende Untersuchungen, Erhebungen, Analysen usw. abgesichert sind. Es ist m. E. zweckmässig, dabei den sieben Punkten zu folgen, in denen ich die *Absichten* erläutert habe, die mit dem Bildungsgesetz von 1965 verwirklicht werden sollten.

Zu 1. Vorschulerziehung

Es gelang in relativ kurzer Zeit, die Zahl der Kindergärten und Kinderkrippen und die Zahl ausgebildeter Vorschulerzieher stark zu steigern. Heute besuchen 90 % der Drei- bis Sechsjährigen einen ganztägig arbeitenden kostenlosen Kindergarten.

In Krippen werden ca. 60 % der Kinder des entsprechenden Alters pädagogisch betreut. Bei den Kindergärten haben wir damit eine fast vollständige Deckung des Bedarfes, d.h. der Wünsche der Eltern, erreicht, bei den Kinderkrippen ist dies noch nicht der Fall. Die Erfolge der Vorschulerziehung sind eindrucksvoll und finden ungeteilte Zustimmung in der Bevölkerung. Man kann generell nachweisen, dass die allseitige und harmonische Entwicklung der Vorschulkinder durch eine pädagogisch gut durchdachte Erziehung im Kindergarten in enger Zusammenarbeit mit den Eltern (täglicher Kontakt) stark gefördert wird. Dies zeigt sich in einem höheren Entwicklungsstand der Schulanfänger im sprachlichen Ausdruck, im logischen Denken, in der Erfassung und Unterscheidung von Mengen, in der körperlichen Gewandtheit, in der Entwicklung musischer Fähigkeiten, in den sozialen Beziehungen usw. Die Kindergärten haben ferner eine kompensatorische Wirkung, sie fördern die Entwicklung vor allem solcher Kinder, bei denen von den Familienbedingungen her ungünstige Verhältnisse vorliegen. Insgesamt ist die Schulreife höher und sind - sozial bedingte - gravierende Unterschiede im Entwicklungsstand geringer geworden.

Bei den Krippen hat sich in der Bevölkerung stark die Auffassung durchgesetzt, dass die Kinder während des ersten Lebensjahres von den Eltern, besonders der Mutter, voll betreut werden. Inzwischen realisierte sozialpolitische Massnahmen fördern diesen Standpunkt (26 Wochen Schwangerschaftsurlaub, das "Baby-Jahr" vom zweiten Kind an; die Möglichkeit, generell ein Jahr aus dem Beruf auszuscheiden, wobei der Arbeitsplatz erhalten bleibt usw.). Die Krippen werden somit immer mehr eine Einrichtung nur für zwei Jahre (zweites und drittes Lebensjahr).

Das Hauptproblem der Vorschulerziehung besteht gegenwärtig darin, sie in den nächsten Jahren weiter auszubauen, um den gegenwärtigen Versorgungsgrad trotz erfreulicherweise ansteigenden Geburtenzahlen zu halten und planmässig weiter zu steigern.

Zu 3. Zehnklassige, allgemeinbildende polytechnische Oberschule

Diese Schule wurde voll in der Praxis eingeführt. Die relativ hohen Ziele werden von der überwiegenden Mehrheit der Schüler

erreicht. Für Schüler mit wesentlichen physischen oder psychischen Mängeln steht ein ausgebautes System von Sonderschulen zur Verfügung. Von den "gesunden" Schülern erreicht die überwiegende Mehrheit das Ziel der zehnten Klasse in zehn Schuljahren. Erklärtes Ziel ist es, möglichst alle Heranwachsenden auf das Niveau einer zehnklassigen Schulbildung zu bringen. Schülern, die das Ziel einer Klasse nicht erreichen, wird Gelegenheit gegeben, diese Klasse zu wiederholen, sie erreichen dann das Ziel der zehnten Klasse in elf Schuljahren. Einigen, vor allem "schulmüden" Schülern wird die Möglichkeit eingeräumt, die zehnklassige Oberschule schon nach der achten Klasse zu verlassen. Sie gehen dann in eine spezielle Form der Berufsausbildung, in der die Allgemeinbildung fortgesetzt wird.
Die neuen Lehrpläne bewähren sich gut. Die polytechnische Erziehung als Bestandteil sozialistischer Allgemeinbildung ist heute sowohl als generelles Prinzip als auch in den speziellen Formen regelmässiger Teilnahme der Schüler von der siebenten Klasse an an produktiver Arbeit in sozialistischen Betrieben absolut selbstverständlich. Auf dem VIII. Pädagogischen Kongress 1978 hat der Minister für Volksbildung, Dr. Margot Honecker, eine Bilanz über das Erreichte gezogen und auf weiterführende Probleme aufmerksam gemacht. Sie liegen vor allem in folgendem:

- Die einheitliche zehnklassige Oberschule hat das allgemeine Bildungsniveau beträchtlich angehoben. Hat sie in gleicher Weise der Förderung individueller Interessen und Begabungen gedient ? Das Verhältnis von Einheitlichkeit und Differenzierung gewinnt an Bedeutung. Zu diesem Problem werden intensive Forschungen durchgeführt. Die dabei erarbeiteten pädagogischen Strategien[2], z.B. für die Führung des Unterrichts oder für ein Zusatzangebot fakultativer Arbeitsgemeinschaften und Kurse werden nun in stärkerem Umfang generell verwirklicht. Die zehnklassige Oberschule wird somit flexibler und mit mehr Formen differenzierter pädagogischer Arbeit angereichert werden, ohne ihren Charakter als Einheitsschule zu verändern.

- Es gibt Klagen über die mangelnde Festigkeit grundlegender Kenntnisse und Fertigkeiten und auch kritische Hinweise zur methodischen Gestaltung des Unterrichts, zum gesamten Klima in bestimmten Schulen, zur ungenügenden Wirksamkeit der Schule

in den Freizeitbereich der Schüler hinein usw.
Das Problem besteht offensichtlich darin, dass die den neuen Zielen und Inhalten gemässe Gestaltungskonzeption des Unterrichts zwar in der Theorie im wesentlichen vorliegt - wenn auch nicht vollständig -, dass sie aber noch nicht die Praxis in allen Schulen und bei allen Lehrern bestimmt.
Es geht also um die weitere *Ausgestaltung* der Schule, ohne am Gesamtsystem oder am Lehrplanwerk Grundsätzliches zu verändern.

Zu 3. Berufsausbildung

Praktisch 100 % aller Absolventen der zehnklassigen Oberschule erhalten - soweit sie nicht weiterführende Schulen besuchen - eine meist zweijährige Berufsausbildung. Dass eine Berufsausbildung heute für *alle* Heranwachsenden verwirklicht wird und niemand "ungelernt" in die Praxis geht, halte ich persönlich für einen der grössten Erfolge der letzten 14 Jahre. Daraus ergibt sich bereits eine beträchtliche Veränderung der Qualifikationsstruktur der Werktätigen.

Es hat sich durchgesetzt, dass in allen Berufsausbildungen eine relativ breite berufliche Grundausbildung erfolgt, in deren Rahmen auch die allgemeine Bildung weitergeführt wird.

Hauptsächlich wird die Berufsausbildung in Betriebsberufsschulen grosser volkseigener Betriebe realisiert, mit beträchtlichem Aufwand, in enger Verbindung von Theorie und Praxis. Auch hier geht es - ähnlich wie in der Oberschule - um die weitere Ausgestaltung.
z.Zt. wird stark diskutiert, ob durch diese recht anspruchsvolle Berufsausbildung nicht eine "Überqualifizierung" entsteht. Viele junge Facharbeiter nehmen nach abgeschlossener Berufsausbildung eine Tätigkeit auf, für deren erfolgreiche Ausführung eine sehr kurze Anlernzeit genügt hätte. Dieser Widerspruch war vorherzusehen, und er war *gewollt*, und zwar aus sehr prinzipiellen gesellschaftspolitischen und auch pädagogischen Überlegungen. In der sozialistischen Gesellschaft geht die Verantwortung jedes Arbeiters weit über seinen Arbeitsplatz hinaus, denn er ist ja zugleich Mitbesitzer der Produktionsmittel.

Sozialistische Demokratie im Betrieb heisst, alle Arbeiter in alle wesentlichen volkswirtschaftlichen Entscheidungen einzubeziehen, wozu Sachkundigkeit erforderlich ist, für die eine breite Grundlagenbildung (allgemeine und berufliche) eine notwendige Voraussetzung darstellt. Der wissenschaftlich-technische Fortschritt bringt schnelle Veränderungen mit sich. Der Werktätige kann ihnen um so besser gerecht werden, ja sie selbst im Sinne der weiteren Humanisierung des Arbeitsprozesses aktiv fördern, je fundierter seine Einsichten in die zugrundeliegenden Gesetzmässigkeiten sind. Die Arbeit kann nur dann als wichtiger Bereich des Schöpfertums, der Selbstverwirklichung der Persönlichkeit voll wirksam werden, wenn der arbeitende Mensch seine Tätigkeit in grössere Zusammenhänge einordnen kann.
Aus all diesen Gründen halten wir an den gegenwärtigen Zielen, Inhalten und Formen der Berufsausbildung fest, gestalten sie aber weiter aus.

Zu . Wege zur Hochschulreife

Sie haben sich bewährt, vor allem die Form Berufsausbildung mit Abitur als Vorbereitung auf ein Studium technischer Disziplinen. Generell ist noch nicht vollständig gelöst, wie der "nahtlose" Übergang zur Hochschule am besten zu gewährleisten ist. Es wird mit verschiedenen Methoden der "Hochschulvorbereitung" in der Abiturstufe experimentiert und ebenso mit spezifischen Einführungsveranstaltungen in Methoden und Techniken des Studiums an den Universitäten.

Zu 8. Lebenslanges Lernen

Die Zahl der sich in irgendeiner Weise weiterbildenden Erwachsenen steigt ständig. Auch regelmässige, institutionalisierte Formen der Weiterbildung werden in immer mehr Berufsgruppen selbstverständlich. Besonders bemerkenswert ist hier die Lehrerweiterbildung. Alle Lehrer sind verpflichtet, im Abstand von vier Jahren an Kursen teilzunehmen, in denen sie in ihren beiden Fachdisziplinen (z.B. Mathematik/Physik) in den pädagogisch-psychologisch-methodischen Disziplinen und in der Philosophie,

politischen Ökonomie etc. mit neuen Erkenntnissen vertraut gemacht werden.

Zu 6. Planmässige proportionale Entwicklung des Bildungswesens

Hier waren und sind beträchtliche Probleme zu lösen. Trotz grösser werdender aussenwirtschaftlicher Belastungen (z.B. steigender Rohstoffpreise) ist es unserer Volkswirtschaft gelungen, die sehr grossen Mittel für die geplante Entwicklung des Bildungswesens zur Verfügung zu stellen. Zu dem komplizierten Problem, wie man Übereinstimmung erzielt zwischen den subjektiven Wünschen und den objektiven Möglichkeiten, kann festgestellt werden:

- Die Zahl der Bewerbungen zur Abiturstufe und damit zu einem Studium liegt höher als die vorhandenen Möglichkeiten. Wir müssen also nach den Leistungen und der Würdigung der Gesamtpersönlichkeit der Bewerber eine Auswahl treffen, was die der Selektion innewohnenden Probleme aufwirft. Die Brisanz des Problems wird entschärft durch die Tatsache, dass es im Bildungssystem keine Sackgassen gibt, d.h. dass - eine gewisse Beharrlichkeit vorausgesetzt - jeder an einem Studium wirklich Interessierte immer einen Weg findet, doch noch die Hochschulreife zu erwerben, auch wenn es beim ersten Anlauf nach der zehnten Klasse nicht geklappt hat. Für die Leistungsfähigkeit des Bildungssystems spricht die Tatsache, dass bei einer Auswahl im wesentlichen nach der Leistung, die soziale Zusammensetzung in allen Stufen, vor allem der Studenten, der Sozialstruktur der Bevölkerung entspricht (ca. 55 % der Studenten sind Kinder von Arbeitern oder Bauern). Diese Tatsache spiegelt auch die tiefgreifenden sozialen Veränderungen in unserer Gesellschaft wider.

1965 gab es einen sehr starken Trend in Richtung Hochschulstudium. Obwohl wir auch gegenwärtig noch mehr Bewerber für die Abiturstufe haben als Plätze, ist doch der Widerspruch sehr viel kleiner geworden. Dies hat vor allem allgemeine, gesellschaftliche Ursachen. Die Arbeiterklasse hat in der sozialistischen Gesellschaft ein hohes Gewicht. Die Sozialpolitik läuft vor allem darauf hinaus, die Lebenslage der Arbeiter ständig zu verbessern und sie - auch was die

Gehälter anbetrifft - z.B. den Lebensbedingungen der Intelligenz immer stärker anzunähern. Es entfallen also viele Gründe, die in manchen nicht-sozialistischen Ländern junge Menschen zu einem Hochschulstudium veranlassen: höheres Einkommen, grösseres Sozialprestige etc. Wirkliches Interesse und tatsächliche Eignung werden in der DDR immer stärker zum Hauptmotiv für ein Studium.

Durch ein System der Berufs- und Studieninformation und Orientierung ist es gelungen, die Wünsche der jungen Leute sehr viel wirksamer auf die Berufe zu lenken, die zur Verfügung stehen. 1979 konnten auf Anhieb mehr als 80 % der Absolventen der zehnklassigen Oberschule einen Ausbildungsplatz in dem Beruf erhalten, den sie sich wünschten. Auch ca. 80 % der Abiturienten erhielten einen Studienplatz in der von ihnen gewünschten Fachrichtung. Vor allem in der Medizin gibt es aber nach wie vor sehr viel mehr Bewerber als Plätze, wohingegen manche technischen Fachrichtungen bereits Schwierigkeiten haben, die vorhandenen Plätze zu besetzen.

Allmählich schält sich ein neues Problem heraus. Es mehren sich die Anzeichen, dass in der Bevölkerung Bildungsbedürfnisse auch in Richtung auf eine Hochschulbildung wachsen, die nicht unbedingt mit beruflichen Zielen verbunden sind. Man wünscht sich eine höhere Allgemeinbildung. Es gibt Diskussionen darüber, wie wir dieser sehr erfreulichen Bedürfnisentwicklung Rechnung tragen können, wobei natürlich auch die ökonomischen Möglichkeiten bedacht werden müssen.

Zu 7. Neubestimmung der Inhalte der Bildung

Unsere Überzeugung der Jahre vor 1965, dass man das Bildungswesen als *Ganzes*, in den einzelnen Stufen wohl aufeinander abgestimmt, verändern muss, wenn echte und dauerhafte Erfolge erzielt werden sollen, hat sich als völlig richtig erwiesen. Diese Erfahrung deckt sich auch mit der anderer Länder. Überall dort, wo man nicht mal hier, mal dort, mal in der Grundschule, dann an den Universitäten herumexperimentiert hat, sondern systematisch Schritt für Schritt nach einer Gesamt-

Bildungssystem der DDR

konzeption vorgegangen ist, wurden - z.B. in den anderen sozialistischen Ländern, z.T. auch in skandinavischen Staaten - echte Erfolge erzielt.

Ebenso bestätigen unsere Erfahrungen und wiederum auch internationale Vergleiche, dass Bildungsreformen zwar fast immer mit Strukturveränderungen im Bildungssystem verbunden sind, dass es aber primär um Ziele, Inhalte und die organisatorisch-methodische Gestaltung geht. Deshalb messen wir der weiteren inhaltlichen und organisatorisch-methodischen Gestaltung in allen Stufen des Bildungssystems, vom Kindergarten bis zur Universität, so grosse Bedeutung zu, betrachten wir dies als die Hauptaufgabe in der vor uns liegenden Entwicklungsetappe unseres Landes.

FUSSNOTEN:

1. Vergl. auch: *"Das Bildungswesen der DDR"* , Volk und Wissen Volkseigener Verlag, Berlin 1979
2. Vergl. z.B. M. Berge, H. Klein, W. Salzwedel: *"Einheitlicher Unterricht - individuelle Förderung aller Schüler"*, Volk und Wissen Volkseigener Verlag, Berlin 1975

SUMMARY:

Some experiences in consequence of reforms in the educational system conception."

Several school reforms have radically changed the DDR educational system. In 1965 the "Gesetz über das einheitliche sozialistische Bildungssystem" (Unified Socialist Education Act) was passed. This act is decisive for the steady development of mass education during the next decades:
- Realization of a qualified pre-school education on a voluntary basis in state kindergardens and in nurseries;
- The further development of the ten year unified compulsory school for all children;
- Security about a qualified vocational training for all youngsters;
- The attainment of maturity for higher education by different ways;
- The Creation of extensive opportunities for adult education;
- Harmony between economical issues and the connection of vocation and education in order to guarantee to each citizen a profession which is in agreement with his qualifications;
- A new destination of the *contents* of education.

The aims which are at the basis of this act, have for a great deal been realized. Fundamental changes in its structure nor in its contents seem to be necessary. New problems arising from the solution of the questions can be dealt with by the further inner design of the existing framework (aims, contents, ...).
Decision making from the total view on mass education - arranged by means of public needs - and continuity have proved to be efficient.

RESUME:

Quelques expériences à la suite d'une Réforme dans la conception de la formation.

Plusieurs réformes scolaires en D.D.R. ont apporté des changements poussés dans la conception de la Formation. En 1965 la loi sur "Le système socialiste de formation unique" fut adoptée pour la décennie suivante et menait à des décisions fondamentales pour le développement stabile de la formation populaire.
Les points essentiels en sont:
- Réalisation d'une éducation populaire qualifiée, organisée sur des bases libres, dans les "Kindergärten" et les crèches d'état;
- Continuation de l'enseignement obligatoire unique pour tous les enfants;
- Assurer une formation professionnelle qualifiée pour tous les jeunes,
- Obtenir la maturité de niveau supérieur par plusieurs chemins;
- Procurer des possibilités multiples pour une qualification des adultes
- Concordance entre les intérêts économiques du peuple et la direction des professions et des études, afin d'assurer à chaque citoyen un travail selon sa qualification;
- Nouvelle détermination du contenu de la formation.

Les intentions qui donnaient la base de cette loi ont en général été réalisées en grande partie. En principe, les changements ne s'imposent, ni dans la structure, ni dans le contenu. Les problèmes nouveaux qui se présentent à la suite de l'élaboration des tâches, peuvent être résolus par la réalisation interne progressive de ce qui existe (buts, contenu, ...)
Des décisions ultérieures sur la nécessité de continuité de la formation populaire, comme exigeances de la société, ont été affirmées.

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Wichtigste Veröffentlichungen: *Didaktik* (gemeinsam mit K.-H. Tomaschewsky), 1956 (Übersetzungen in der UdSSR, Kuba); *Didaktische Prinzipien und Regeln*, 1959 (Übersetzungen in Polen und Japan); *Schulpädagogik I* (gemeinsam mit K.-H. Tomaschewsky) 1963 (Übersetzungen in Japan und Jugoslawien); *Polytechnische Bildung und Erziehung in der DDR*, Reinbeck 1962; *Bildung [illegible] DDR*, Reinbeck 1974; *Einheitlicher*

Unterricht, individuelle Förderung aller Schulen (gemeinsam mit M. Berge und W. Salzwedel) Berlin 1975; Zahlreiche Artikel in Sammelbänden und Zeitschriften der DDR und vielen andere Ländern, Gastvorlesungen in mehreren Ländern, im Frühjahrssemester 1973 Gastprofessor an der Lomonossow-Universität Moskau.

TEACHER TRAINING REFORM IN FINLAND AND RESEARCH INTO THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROCESS

by

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1. Background of the Finnish Teacher Education Reform of 1971.

Compared with other Nordic countries the Finnish school reform was carried out relatively late. Although after the Second World War several proposals were made to develop a nine-year comprehensive school, a new Act passed the Parliament not until 1968. This was caused by some special circumstances in the Finnish school system.

There was an urgent need for secondary education during the Russian period (1809-1917) as well as during the first decades of independence. In lack of state schools a great number of secondary schools were established by private initiative. The number of such schools which held the same status as state schools and received a considerable economic support from the state, increased fast and was at last two-thirds of all secondary schools. Private school boards were markedly unwilling to give their schools to the municipal school system.

On the other hand, the primary school had slowly grown from a six-year day-school, to an eight-year one: the two last years, the civic school, was mainly vocational. Also the lower secondary school, the middle school, was in many communes incorporated with the primary school. Primary school

authorities argued that the planned nine-year comprehensive school should be built by using the primary school as the frame.

The new school system was a compromise. Municipal school systems for compulsory education were established by melting old primary school and old lower secondary school together. Also kindergarten, vocational schools and upper secondary school, gymnasium, can be incorporated in these local systems.

Comprehensive school offers general basic education. At the lower six-year level all pupils receive essentially the same kind of education. At the upper three-year level the pupils have common subjects but there are also optional courses. In Mathematics and foreign languages the pupils can choose between courses with different degrees of difficulty, but no streaming exists.

Until the comprehensive school reform every branch of the old school system was developing in its own way, unrelated to the others. That was true also with teacher education. Every school type had its own kind for preparation of teachers, and this caused that a teacher competency at one school level was not valid at the other, and a qualified teacher had to undergo new education in the case he wanted to move from one school type to another.

Education of secondary school teachers was organized first, already in the 1820's. For those wanting to become a school master, an Educational Seminar was established at the university. Teacher education took place after completion of the other academic studies. In order to train as qualified teachers as possible a chair in Education was founded 1852. With a few exceptions, the secondary school teachers have been since educated in the universities. Student teaching was arranged after M.A.,M.Sc., or other academic degree and it took one year. Teacher training took place in so-called "Normal schools".

On the other hand, training of primary school teachers started 1863 and was from the beginning placed outside the university, in Seminars similar those in Switzerland and Germany. The length of teacher training varied according to the previous education of the student and increased as soon as demands of the primary education grew. At first the training lasted four years, but was later extended to six years for students with primary school education only. Undergraduates whose proportion among the students increased decade after decade had at first only a one-year training, and later three years.

The content of teacher education for female and male students was the same, but the basis for selection differed. The first Seminar for male students in the 1860's was based on primary school education only or, as in many cases, no completed school education at all was needed. Men with higher education showed that time very little interest in becoming primary school teachers. On the other hand, it was believed that the most suitable teachers could be educated from people with a grass-root background. In fact, such a recruiting strategy was necessary because a law necessiated all primary schools, which at the beginning were not coeducational, to have both female and male teachers.

With regard to the females interested in primary school teaching, there was supply also from upper social strata and with at least lower secondary school education. The number of educational careers for young women was rather limited during the 19th century. Because of their previous studies teacher education for a part of female students could be made shorter than for male students.

These differences in recruiting disappeared slowly during the 20th century because lower secondary schools were established also in the countryside and because women get an easier access to academic studies. However, the number of female applicants into teacher education, especially of those with higher education has remained considerably greater than that of male applicants.

Among both sexes the supply of applicants has always been very good. Teaching career has been, and still is, rather highly valued one, and the number of applicants has been considerably greater than that of available study places. For instance, in the 1950's less than 10% of female and about 30% of male applicants could get into the teacher training institutes. Therefore, one of the most difficult problems in teacher education has been the selection of students.

A crucial question is, how to find among a great number of young applicants those who are most likely to succeed in their studies and, most important, in their work as teachers. In other words, how to identify those applicants who probably will fail as teachers and how to hinder them to enter teacher education, even if their scholastic merits are good.

Until the 1950's mistakes in selection were tried to be avoided simply by interviewing the applicants by the head of the teachers' college. It was supposed that the head was experienced enough to assess whether an applicant was suitable or not to enter the career as a teacher. However, studies carried out at that time suggested that reasonably few, a fourth, of accepted applicants who later were to become unsuccessful teachers in service had had their suitability questioned at the entrance situation. It is difficult to forecast a failure as a teacher.

However, these results are, to some extent, vulnerable because the measurements of success in teaching were unsystematic rather than based on systematic observations of the structure and dynamics of the instructional processes. Nevertheless, there is no doubt that a success or a failure in teaching, e.g., four years after the entrance examination is very difficult to assess. This difficulty is more apparent in selection of students whatever are the methods of assessment.

It was argued that a much better way to deal with an unsuitable applicant were to advice her or him to enter some alternative area of studies other than teacher education.

However, this was not possible in a system with isolated teachers colleges, and that has been one of the reasons to reorganize the teacher training.

2. The New Organization of the Finnish Teacher Education.

Already during the planning stage of the comprehensive school reform the consequences on teacher education were recognized and the need for reorganizing teacher training was taken into consideration. It was evident that the comprehensive school system necessiated a more unitary system for teacher education than the traditional one. As mentioned earlier, every school level had its own teacher training with no connection to the other teacher groups. The Parliament, when debating the Comprehensive School Act, expressed the view that the Act should be followed by a reform of teacher education. In fact, the first plans for a reform were already available at the time. The Comprehensive School Act 1968 was followed by the Teacher Education Act as soon as in 1971. A new teacher education system started before the whole country had gone into comprehensive.

This organization consists of Departments of Teacher Education which have been established at each university, as a part of the Faculty of Education. All teachers for the comprehensive school as well as for the upper secondary school are trained at these departments. Training of preschool teachers is partly moved to these units and, according to the law, the preparation of teachers for vocational schools, too, is due to take place in the Departments of Teacher Education.

The main characteristics of the new system of teacher education are as follows.

1. All teacher education is based on the matriculation examination and is leading to a master's degree, which requires at least four years. This means that the length of education for teachers at all levels of the school is the same. A teacher of the youngest children needs as long preparation than a teacher on the upper grades of the comprehensive school.

The task of the teacher at the infant and primary level is by no means easier than with the older pupils. The education of the young pupils is considered highly important. However, the same length and quality of studies does not mean that the content of education should be the same. Naturally a differentiation in terms of the age of pupils is necessary.

2. Although special studies are needed for teachers at various level and areas of the school, all students of teacher education are studying at the same institute and even having certain courses in common. It is hoped that in this way the future staff members with different functions but with common educational aims learn to work in cooperation in the actual school life.
3. As mentioned earlier, a Department of Teacher Education belongs to the Faculty of Education. Studies for the teaching profession are consequently equal with other academic studies preparing for public services. This means in practice, i.a., that a student, in a case she or he finds the choice of career to be a mistake or is found unsuitable to become a teacher, can move to another study program within or outside the faculty. This helps a student to avoid frustrations and to find a more successful alternative among the other careers available.
4. Teachers at the upper level of the comprehensive school are mainly subject-matter specialists and receive a part of their education in other faculties (Faculty of Arts, Science, Divinity etc.) These subject studies and studies in education are, however, coordinated and parallel so that the student is able throughout the studies to consider the subject also from educational point of view, i.e., how it should be taught in the school.

3. Aims for the New Teacher Education.

The aims for the new teacher education are deducted from needs of the society and, on the other hand, from rights of the pupils as individuals. The teacher should therefore be able to

analyse the development of the society and to be aware of the social consequences of his work. But, the teacher should also be acquainted with the factors affecting the development of individual pupils and be able to help them to adjust themselves to society and to promote the development of their personalities as independent persons.

In order to realize the aims of school education in practice the teacher should be able to arrange and guide activities in his class so that the school life strengthens a desired behavior of pupils. Therefore, the teacher should not only know the subject-matter but the pupils as individuals and as group members as well as actors in the dynamic structure of educational process. He must be able to apply this knowledge to the particular situations with particular pupils.

This flexible application of general instructional principles which is called 'didactic thinking', is characterized as an ability to analyse instructional situations as wholes and as an ability to find out practical solutions without being rigorously bound to ready-made schemes or models for teaching. The capacity to think didactically is to be considered as the most important characteristic of the teacher.

4. Learning to Teach as the Focus of Teacher Education.

Guiding the instructional process is without doubt one of the most important tasks of the teacher. Without adequate preparation of teachers for this task, the aims of school education can not be fully realized. It is, however, rather surprising how little student teaching has dealt with questions like what the teaching process really is, how is the instructional process structured or what are the dynamic aspects of teaching and learning. What student teachers have had to learn, at least in Finland, are certain arrangements in teaching, some forms of instruction, or 'methods' to be used. Until now students have not got enough guidance in analyzing elements of the teaching process in relation to various educational situations.

Skill of analyzing the instructional process is also needed in evaluating teacher efficiency. Without reliable information on how the process is composed and what are its essential elements, the evaluation of teachers remains subjective, relying on unsystematic experience and speculation. This conclusion was drawn from a follow-up investigation on the development of young elementary school teachers, carried oud in years 1954-61 in Helsinki. In this case the development of students was followed during the four years of teacher training and during the first three years in service. Observation-based ratings intended to serve as basis for assessing teaching of the young teachers proved to be unsatisfactory criterion for the entrance examination. These ratings were not built on reliable facts about the structure and dynamics of the instructional process and therefore did not give essential information for evaluation.

Since the 1950's intensive classroom research has been carried out in many countries and it has increased our knowledge relevant to the teacher education and to the evaluation on teachers. The Helsinki Institute of Education started in 1967 a research to clarify the structure and dynamics of the instructional processes. First results of this project were published at the time of reorganization of the teacher education and have had some impact on the student teaching in the new frames.

This project, DPA Helsinki, is based on the following ideas.

Departing from the definition that the instructional process consists of 'a chain of interactions, situated in the life cycle of the school, and aimed at the development of pupils' personalities in the directions determined by educational goals', the aims of the DPA Helsinki Project have been as follows:

Firstly, to describe holistic chains of instructional situations consisting of preinteractive, interactive, and postinteractive phases, and to find out invariances both within instructional periods and between periods following each other; and

secondly, to understand and explain instructional processes in terms of people participating in the interaction and on the basis of certain background (frame) variables, comprising teacher, student, social structure, and goal variables.

In order to carry out these tasks an instrument, 'The DPA Helsinki System for Describing Instructional Processes', was developed during 1967-73. The taxonomy is based on pedagogical moves defined by Bellack. In addition, aspects of social-affective behavior and mode of teacher influence have been synthetized from Bales' and Flanders' taxonomies. The DPA Helsinki taxonomy includes a coding system for pedagogical moves and, moreover, a period coding system consisting of eight separate aspects. These aspects are derived from or related to the definition of instruction mentioned earlier:

A. division of labor & responsibility, and grouping of pupils (operationalized by activity forms)
B. formal characteristics of verbal communication
C. content (knowledge & skills) and its relevance to pupils
D. climate of the classroom
E. authority relationships
F. flexibility of the teacher
G. pupil participation
H. goal-related behavior.

A number of various indices are formed by these aspects.

These aspects are technically independent but the following were found to overlap: positive emotional climate, indirect teacher influence, pupil participation, and awareness and consideration of instructional goals on the part of the pupils. These properties exist more or less simultaneously. A cluster of these aspects is defined as 'cohesion'. In a strong cohesion the teacher and the pupils are acting closely together in the personal area and in practical matters as well.

After the taxonomic phase of the DPA Helsinki the main material was collected during spring term of 1975 in six 4th grade classrooms. Teachers and pupils were already during

the year before made familiar to the TV observation and to the methods of joint planning. The research material consists of over 80 videotaped lessons in one jointly planned school week. In addition, direct observations, tests and questionnaires were used when collecting information. All lessons are analyzed by the DPA Helsinki System, and some background variables have been available.

A complete review of our research findings of the structure of the instructional process are not presented here. Only two aspects are now discussed: the use of activity forms (aspect A) and the content of instruction (aspect C). Those aspects are easiest to plan in advance and they are therefore most relevant to the teacher education.

In what way the instructional process as a whole is influenced by use of different activity forms, especially by a varied use of them, and by the content of instruction ? In order to answer this question we have analyzed concomitant properties of the process which may be combined with some typical activity forms or particular contents of instruction. The question is, in fact, an old one: Does the form or the content come first when considering the influence of the instruction on the development of the pupil ?

When studying the influence of the activity forms or the content on the instructional process it is necessary to take all aspects of that process into consideration. The DPA Helsinki analysis makes it possible to find out connections between various activity forms (or contents) and other process properties, too. These aspects have also been studied in relation to teacher characteristics.

Activity forms were registered for every 5 minutes and classified into the following categories: teacher-centered, TC (TC_1: teacher presentation, TC_2: teacher questioning, TC_3: joint exercises), pupil-centered, PC (PC_1: individual work, PC_2: performance of individuals or groups, PC_3: group work), and cooperative, CO (CO_1: instructional discussion, CO_2: assembly).

Instead of using official subject-matter categories, the content of the lesson was classified, also for every 5 minutes, as follows: content planned at first place to master means of communication (MC), to increase knowledge of the environment (KR), to adopt formal systems (FS), to promote adoption of value systems (VS), and to develop motor skills (MS).

In comparisons of lessons with different activity forms (or with different content) following other process variables were used:

- proportion of teacher moves of the total number of moves
- logical level of moves
- content-centeredness of the teacher (the same for pupils)
- indirect teacher influence
- flexibility of the teacher
- proportion of teacher moves with social-affective qualities of the total number of teacher moves (the same for pupils)
- proportion of positive teacher moves of the total number of teacher moves with social-affective qualities (the same for pupils)
- spontaneity of pupils
- goal-related behavior of pupils
- proportion of pupil-pupil sequences of all sequences
- personal experience of the pupils in communication
- tension release

The pupil traits and their background as well as curriculum and the use of learning materials were much alike in our six classes. However, the study showed considerable differences between them in the process variables. Some of the main findings are discussed in the following.

It was found that a varied use of activity forms in a classroom correlated with the degree of cohesion of the instructional process, i.e., emotional climate, authority relationships, pupil participation and their goal-related behavior. In addition, there was a positive correlation between the varied use of activity forms and teacher flexibility.

In terms of the aspects of the whole process only lessons with pupil performances (PC_2) or teacher presentation (TC_1) differed clearly from other typical lessons. In the former case the proportion of positive teacher and pupil social-affective moves was high, as well as tension release and logical level of the communication. In the latter case positive pupil moves and tension release appeared to be highly represented.

Studies of how the content is correlated to the other properties of the instructional process showed a negative correlation between an obviously abstract and teacher-centered content and a varied use of activity forms in the class. This was typical to lessons in Mathematics (FS) which in some respects differed from all other lessons. But this appeared to be true also with the KR lessons where such exercise books were frequently used which had rather abstract language and contained multiple-choice tasks instead of tasks that could be solved in an individual way.

In summary, lessons types characterized by a particular activity form or a content differed very little from each other when all classes were considered together in terms of the other process variables. Nevertheless, the use of activity forms varied considerably between different classes, although teacher's age, competence and experience were very similar. In addition, the use of activity forms did cover the most of the other aspects of the instructional process.

Because the content of the lessons was practically the same in all classes, explanation for differences was to be sought in teacher personality and in his work habits. An hypothesis was made that a less varied use of activity forms and low level of cohesion are related to the teacher's inability to understand pupils as individuals and as group members.

Some psychometric data were used to illuminate teacher's ability to understand pupils: affection seeking, vicarious youth, affiliation, nurturance, succorance, extraversion and, in opposite, aggression, manifest anxiety, impulsiveness and dominance.[1]

Our results suggested that a rather close connection exists between process properties (except the content) and such teacher's traits which can be supposed to indicate understanding of pupils. Even if there are some minor exceptions to this general rule, a varied use of activity forms and a high level of cohesion correlate fairly highly with above-mentioned teacher characteristics. A similar tendency was found with the teacher's opinion on the educational goals: teachers who used flexibly various activity forms regarded individual support and overall development of pupils as most central.

Authorities of education like W. H. Kilpatrick and Peter Petersen have emphasized the importance of the ways of instruction (i.e., forms) in a harmonious development of pupil personality; the content of the instruction (i.e., subject-matter) was considered as less important. Results obtained by the DPA Helsinki Project support rather than contradict that belief.

But if there is a relationship between certain personality traits of the teacher and an instructional interaction, these traits should be observed in selection of students into teacher education. However, teachers do not operate only on the basis of their personality but also on the basis of their experience including their previous training. The findings above should therefore be taken into account both in pre-service and in-service education of teachers.

One of the reasons for starting the DPA Helsinki Project was the notion that without reliable knowledge about the structure of the instructional process, development of teacher education and guidance of teachers would remain unsystematic and haphazard. If student teachers are supposed to follow their own didactic thinking instead of applying prefixed rules, they must be able to analyse instructional situations here and now. The DPA Helsinki System has been planned from its first beginning to enable students teachers to think in a didactic mannar.

Readiness to use the DPA Helsinki taxonomy to identify the

essential characteristics of the instructional process was thought to be both practical and useful. The DPA System has already been applied a few years in the courses for student teachers at the Teacher Education Department, University of Helsinki. This experience has been promising: according to the vast majority of student teachers analyses of instructional situations have served as a useful eye-opener into the problems of instruction and have given new insight to the planning of teaching.

NOTES:

1. Stern's "*Teacher Preference Schedule*", Edwards "*Personal Preference Schedule*" and Häyrynen's "*10 PF*".

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RESUME:

Reforme dans l'Entraînement des Enseignants en Finlande et recherche dans le processus de l'instruction.

Le système finlandais d'entraînement de l'enseignant a été apres avoir pendant plus de vent ans être composé de branches sans beaucoup de relation réciproque pour chaque catégorie

d'école, unifié en 1971 par une réforme exécutée quelques années seulement après que le système scolaire avait changé en un système compréhensif. Dans ce nouveau système tous les enseignants pour l'école compréhensive de 9 années et pour le gymnase sont formés à des institutions qui appartiennent aux facultés de l'Education. Les institutions sont chargé aussi, jusqu'à une certaine mesure, de l'éducation d'enseignants pré-scolaires, et dans le futur on y prévoit aussi l'éducation des enseignants des écoles professionnelles.

Toute éducation d'enseignant conduit à un "master's degree" exigeant au moins quatre ans. Une différentiation en termes d'âge des élèves est appliquée, mais tous les étudiants de l'éducation d'enseignant étudient dans les mêmes instituts et ont certains cours en commun. Le système permet un changement flexible des plans d'étude parce qu'il n'y a pas de culs de sac qui empêcheraient un étudiant de passer à un autre cours, p.e. quand il (ou elle) s'est révélé(e) être moins disposé à la profession d'enseignant.

Afin de réaliser les buts de l'école, l'enseignant devrait être en état de guider des activités dans la classe, de telle manière que la vie à l'école fortifie un comportement désiré des élèves. L'enseignant ne doit pas seulement connaître la matière de la branche, mais aussi les élèves comme individus et membres du groupe, aussi bien comme acteurs dans le processus dynamique de l'instruction. En vue de cela, la capacité de penser de manière didactique doit être considérée comme la caractéristique la plus importante de l'enseignant.

Apprendre cette capacité exige une habileté a analyser le processus d'instruction. Les examens menés depuis 1967 à l'Institut d'Education à Helsinki ont montré entre autres, qu'un emploi varié de formes d'activité dans la classe ont un rapport avec le degré de cohésion entre le processus d'instruction et la flexibilité de l'enseignant. Ces caractéristiques sont à leur tour liées à la capacité de l'enseignant à comprendre les élèves. Ce fait devrait être pris en considération lors de la sélection des étudiants dans l'éducation des enseignants, mais aussi dans l'enseignement des étudiants. Des cours d'analyse de situations d'instruction ont été pratiqués avec succès à l'Institut d'Education d'Enseignants à Helsinki

MATTI KOSKENNIEMI was born in 1908 and educated at classical secondary schools in Helsinki and Turku. He gained his MSc degree in chemistry at the University of Turku in 1930 and his PhD degree at the University of Helsinki with the thesis "Soziale Gebilde und Prozesse in der Schulklasse" in 1936. Social life in the classroom has since been one of his main areas of research which he continued throughout several years of service as a school teacher and state rural school-inspector, interrupted only by the two Finnish wars. After the wars Dr. Koskenniemi became Professor of Education at the University of Jyväskylä from 1944 to 48. Here he reorganized the educational studies along a more empirical direction, opened an experimental school, and was appointed Secretary General of the State Committee for Elementary School Curriculum. At the same time he became interested in the problems of teacher education. In 1948 he moved to Helsinki where he was employed as a school book expert by publishing companies and, later, as Professor of Education and Head of the Institute of Education at the University of Helsinki, holding the last two posts from 1955 until his retirement in 1972. As Professor Emeritus he has continued his research at

the Institute. He has been a member, and served as Chairman, of various state committees concerning school reform and teacher education, and has participated in research projects including "The Development of Young Elementary School Teachers" in 1965. The main work of Prof.Koskenniemi has, however, been to carry out basic research into the instructional process. Theoretical ideas concerning this area are presented in "Elemente der Unterrichts-theorie" (1971), and empirical investigations, began in 1967 as the "Didactic Process Analysis (DPA Helsinki)" project, are nearly finished. About 25 PhD theses have been published at the Institute of Education under his leadership. Professor Koskenniemi is a member of the Finnish Academy of Science and Letters and an Honorary Member of the Finnish Society for Education Research. In 1976 he was awarded the Honour Prize of the Finnish Cultural Foundations. In 1958-78 he has been the Managing Editor of "The Finnish Journal of Education" (Kasvatus) and has also been active in several international associations and organizations including CERI/OECD and WAER.

SOCIAL SENSITIVITY AS A FACTOR IN THE TEACHING PROCESS

A THEORETICAL DISCUSSION AND AN EXPERIMENTAL CONTRIBUTION

by

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Conceptions of teacher effectiveness.

In his book "Educational psychology. A Cognitive View", published in 1968, David Ausubel discusses the relationship between teacher characteristics on the one hand and teacher effectiveness on the other. As regards our insight into this relationship, and the possibility of bringing it out, he takes a very pessimistic view. After having mentioned a number of teacher attributes which should seem to be related to teacher effectiveness he writes as follows:

> "Actually very little is known about which characteristics of teachers make for success in the teaching-learning process. In part, this situation is a reflection of the difficulty of measuring the aforementioned teacher attributes that seem self-evidently related to pedagogic competence, and of the consequent lack of research evidence on these significant variables. In part, also, it is a reflection of the undue emphasis that has been placed over the past three decades on those personality characteristics that were thought to affect the mental health and personality development of children. In addition, much of the existing research evidence in the area tends to be ambiguous, equivocal, and uninterpretable because of the absence of a satisfactory criterion against which to measure effectiveness. Ratings of teacher performance are notoriously unreliable, superficial, subjectivistic, and capricious; and the achievement scores of pupils, as we shall see later, are limited in depth, scope, and validity" (Ausubel 1968, pp. 449-450).

After having also put forth the view that teacher training institutions tend to overemphasize the importance of these

personality factors, he continues:

> "Clearly, since teachers deal with impressionable children and affect their personality development, they should not have unstable or destructive personalities. Nevertheless, the principal criterion in selecting and evaluating teachers should not be the extent to which their personality characteristics conform to some theoretical ideal promoting mental health or personality development, but rather their ability to stimulate and competently direct pupil learning activity" (Ausubel 1968, p.450).

The point of view held by Ausubel is evidently that our knowledge about the factors which make for teacher effectiveness is limited and to a great extent unreliable. Furthermore, he is clearly of the opinion that the teacher's competence as director of the students' learning activities, not his personality characteristics, should be the point of departure when evaluating his suitability.

Stated in general terms ideas such as those may be defensible. But on the other hand they do not carry us far in our efforts to solve the problem of what teacher effectiveness really means, what the criterion of such effectiveness is, how it is assessed, and what the teacher characteristics and teacher behavior are which are conducive to such effectiveness.

Obviously our conception of teacher effectiveness is dependent upon the view we hold as regards the aim of education, what aspects in the learning process we consider as important or less important. In particular, differences of opinion are likely to arise when, in this connection, the place of the cognitive aspects is to be compared with the place of the social and emotional aspects. Problems such as these have to do with conceptions of value, and consequently they cannot be answered in a final way by means of research.

Even if agreement concerning the aims of education should happen to exist, there would still be difficulties in finding criteria of effectiveness which would appear acceptable to those involved. Probably it will never be possible to find a single criterion or a set of criteria upon which all concerned will agree. However, if links can be established between teacher characteristics and teacher behavior on the one hand and various

types of criteria of effectiveness on the other, information of value will be at hand, irrespective of the educational philosophy we may adhere to.

As Ausubel so emphatically points out, there are difficulties of measurement with regard to the different variables concerned. But in principle these difficulties are the same as those we are likely to meet in psychoeducational measurement in general. Probably it is correct to say that the major part of the confusion in this area does not stem from the difficulties of assessment as such, but from the fact that we are inclined to evaluate the teaching problems from various points of view philosophically, without being sufficiently conscious of this and without making our stand clear.

The teacher as a model.

Teaching implies an interaction between teacher and student. It should be evident that, to a great degree, the character of this interaction will determine the learning result. In the shaping of the interaction, and thereby the development of the learning process, the student has his share as well as the teacher. However, the teacher as the grown-up and would-be specialist in matters of learning bears major responsibility for the course of learning.

Nobody would deny that teachers differ in their ability to behave in accordance with such a responsibility and that there is a relationship between the characteristics of the teacher and his behavior as educator. When discussing these characteristics in relation to competence one has to take into account that the tasks of the educator do not only vary with our conceptions of aims, but also in other ways, as for instance with the developmental levels of the students, their characteristics individually and in groups, the subject matter to be taught or problem to be dealt with.

The many circomstances to be taken into consideration make it difficult to reach conclusions of a general nature as to what characteristics in the teacher are requisite or to be considered desirable.

As a first step in the way of a generalization we may venture to say that *the teacher should rank high or fairly high or above the students as regards abilities and reaction characteristics which he is supposed to develop in the students through his interaction with them.*

In spite of the fact that such a statement may seem self-evident there may be those who would oppose it. When considering the aims within the cognitive area, learning to do with subject matter, it will probably be agreed that thorough knowledge of the learning matter is an important requirement. On the other hand, when dealing with development in the social and emotional area and the teacher's role in this connection, we may assume that some uncertainty would arise.

However, in my own work with these problems I have based my reasoning on the assumption that in any case it would be an advantage if the teacher himself had developed satisfactorily and preferably reached an upper level in the areas where he has a cultivating function in his work with the students.

From a theoretical point of view there are a number of arguments in favor of such an assumption. Among others such arguments will be found in theories underlying the development of the behavior therapy or behavior modification during the last decades. The concept of modelling is in this connection an essential one. The basic idea is here that behavior can be changed and shaped by exposure to the behavior of a social model. Behavior is learned by observation of the model. It is assumed that new reaction patterns may be developed in the observer through such modelling and also that the frequency of reactions learned at an earlier time may be changed. The learning effect of the modelling will depend among other things on what the observer recognizes as consequences of the behavior being modelled. Both classical and operant conditioning are supposed to be at work in the modelling process.

That modelling of behaviour in some way or other has an effect on the observer and influences the development of his behavior has been demonstrated in a number of investigations. The last fifteen years have witnessed a great increase in the systematic research on modelling, and the reports from this research indicate clearly that modelling is an influential factor in

learning. (Cf. O'Leary 1977, pp. 177-215 and Marholin II 1978, pp. 292-298).

Consciously or unconsciously the teacher acts as a model. He is observed by the students, and the behavior he displays must be assumed to exert an influence upon them in some direction or other. If we accept this as a matter of fact it should evidently be desirable for the teacher's behavior in the learning situation to be in accordance with the behavior he is to develop in his students. In other words, he should exemplify this behavior.

The question concerning the importance of the teacher's own development may also be seen from other angles. In the postwar period the so-called non-directive or client-centred therapy has attracted great attention. The theory underlying this approach, as it is developed by Carl Rogers, relies heavily upon the concept of self as an explanatory concept. It regards the aim of personality development as being "a basic congruence between the phenomenal field of experience and the conceptual structure of the self". If such a congruence can be achieved "freedom from internal strain and anxiety" should be attained (Rogers 1951, p. 532).

In an interpersonal relationship involving counselling it is the theory of Rogers that the greater congruence the counsellor himself has attained, the greater the probability is that the relationship will result in increasing congruence in the client (Rogers 1961, p. 344).

If we accept this theory it will obviously have implications for which qualifications, characteristics or attributes we should consider desirable among teachers. Not only the parents and the counsellors, but also the teachers bear responsibility for the personality development of the students. If congruence as conceived by Rogers is important then it is important also in the teacher's relationship with the students, and his own development in this respect must be considered essential.

In this connection where we are to deal with social sensitivity there is also another aspect of Rogers' theory which should be mentioned. If the client is to see the inconsistencies in his self-conception and develop a more adequate self image, then, according to Rogers, a situation must be developed which

in no way is experienced as threatening. In other words, the person in the counselling role must be accepting in his attitude. He must be genuine and warm and display ability to see the situation from the point of view of the client (Rogers 1961, p.185).

If Rogers is correct in his viewpoint that an empathic ability on the part of the counsellor is a necessary condition for a proper contact between counsellor and client and for behavior changes to occur, then it seems reasonable to assume that such an ability is necessary or desirable also in the teacher.

Social sensitivity of teachers.

On the basis of reasoning of this type I have for many years been interested in the ability of teachers to place themselves in the shoes of others, to react in conjunction with them, to react with empathy or "Einfühlung". In my writing about this I have most often used the term coreactive behavior to describe the behavior type in question. Another term with a similar connotation would be *social sensitivity*. It involves the ability as well as the inclination to see the world from the point of view of others, not only from one's own angle, and to react in social situations with understanding, with empathy.

A comprehensive test was developed to assess the reaction tendency in question here. In this connection the assessment problems as such will not be discussed either in general or in relation to this particular test. It will have to suffice to say that through repeated investigations the test has proved to be adequate both as to reliability and validity (Sandven 1975, pp. 15-37, 75-149).

In our investigations among teachers we wanted at the outset, as a first attack on the problem, to bring to light whether the candidates who were selected for teacher training were different as to social sensitivity from those who were refused. As no direct attention was paid to this reaction tendency in the rules of admission, the hypothesis was that no notable difference would be found. This also proved to be the case. Thus in an investigation of 919 applicants to the teacher training

college those admitted, 466 in number, *did not differ significantly on social sensitivity from those not admitted*, 453 in number (Sandven 1969).

If the tendency to react with social sensitivity is a comparatively stable trait, at least among grown-ups, the practice of not paying attention to this trait at the time of admission would seem questionable to put it mildly.
As regards the problem of stability we got an indication from a follow-up study of the admitted candidates about 4 years later, at the end of their time in the training college. Actually it was brought out that in the course of the college period greater shifts among the candidates took place in the area of achievement than in the area of social sensitivity. Whereas a correlation of r = .43 was obtained between admission examination and total result from college at the time of leaving (N=315), the correlation between test result on social sensitivity at admission and retest result at the end of college 4 years later (N=285) was r = .50 (Sandven, 1969).

Thus it seems justifiable to conclude that social sensitivity in all likelihood is a *fairly stable personality characteristic*, at least among grown-ups. Furthermore it appears evident that the traditional procedures for admission to teacher training do not take this characteristic into account in any significant degree.

Whether this ought to be done or not depends upon how important social sensitivity actually is as a teacher characteristic. Probably there will be agreement that social sensitivity must be regarded as a valuable reaction characteristic in social interchange in general and that it should be an aim of education to develop such sensitivity in the students. To succeed with this, it should be an advantage, in the light of our earlier discussion, for the teacher himself, in his role as a model, to rank in the upper region in this respect. Also in his efforts from time to time to change the behavior of the students, an empathic ability and inclination on the part of the teacher would seem to be an asset. In any case the theories and experiences of Rogers would lead to this as a reasonable assumption.

Social sensitivity indicated as a factor in teaching.

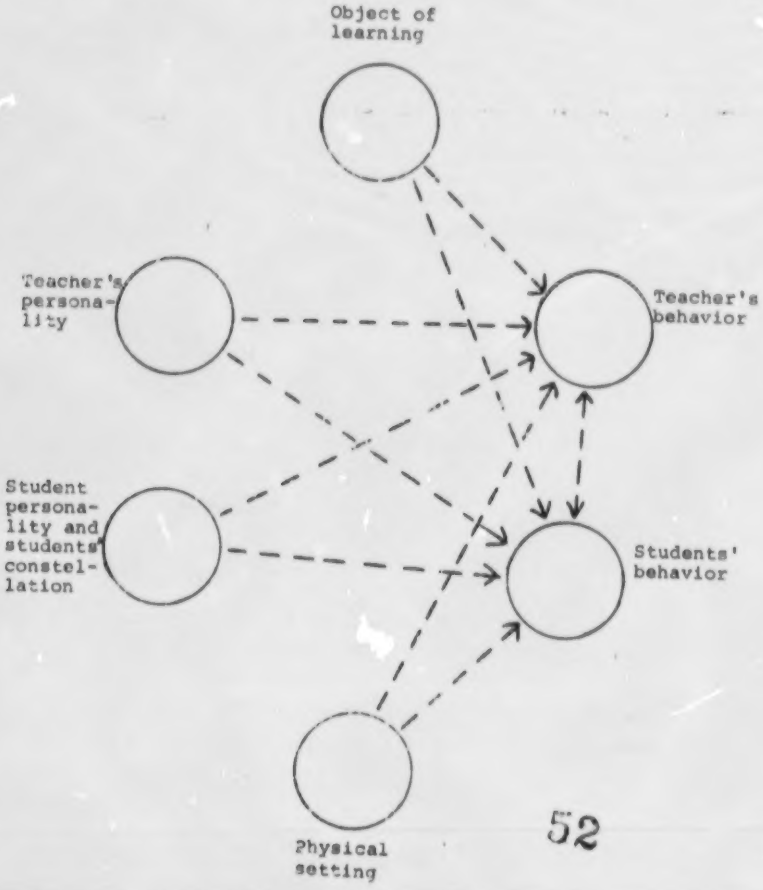
Theoretical considerations are important and should of course be taken into account in our dealings with educational problems. But if at all possible we should look for empirical evidence to substantiate theory.

As regards the role of social sensitivity as a factor in the teaching process, various efforts have been made to bring to light whether teachers with a high score on social sensitivity would be more effective in their teaching than teachers with a low score. An indication of teaching efficiency lies in the *mark given for teaching ability* at the end of college. The basis of this mark is diffuse, and partly as a consequence of this it has been very difficult to predict. Thus in the student group mentioned the correlation between the entrance examination and the mark for teaching ability at the end of college was very low, r = .08 (N=285). The correlation between social sensitivity at entrance to college and the mark mentioned at the end of college was somewhat higher, but also this was rather low (r = .14, N=285). In view of the subjective and undefined character of the mark for teaching, and also the distance in time from prediction to marking, this was what we had expected (Sandven 1969).

A clear indication that social sensitivity may be essential to the role of the teacher we found in the fact that it appeared to furnish a basis for a constructive *educational attitude*. A comprehensive test was developed in order to obtain a measure of the candidates' educational attitude at the end of college. The main objective was to get an impression of the degree to which the educational attitude of the candidates was conducive to learning as judged from generally accepted requirements in regard to promotion of learning. The correlation between social sensitivity at the entrance to college and educational attitude as thus indicated at the end of college (N=285) turned out to be as high as r = .37 (Sandven 1969).

What we have to keep in mind when attacking a problem like this, is that the influencing factors in the educational situation are so many and so highly interwoven that correlations between variables are likely to be confounded and therefore difficult to interpret. If we are to reach conclusions which are valid both theoretically and as a basis for action, it is important that we try to control the influencing factors to the extent possible.

The more important of these factors are indicated in the figure below.



In the figure it is assumed that the teacher's behavior is affected by the object of the learning, by the teacher's personality, by student personality and students' constellation in the group, and by the physical setting.

Design of investigation

In the following passages I am going to present the outlines of an investigation in which we tried to control some of the variables in question experimentally. In this investigation microteaching and recording by video [illegible]ed. Candidates in the last year of their teacher training took part as teachers. They were 29 in number. Two teaching tasks adjusted to students in the sixth grade of the compulsory school were developed and assigned to the candidates. In one of the tasks the Law of Archimedes was to be explained, in the other the Contour Line system used in geographical maps. The period of teaching for each of the tasks was 15 minutes, and all the candidates were assigned to both tasks. Thus each of them taught for two fifteen minute periods, one for each of the tasks.

It is a well-known fact that the teacher's instruction and his behavior in the classroom vary with the composition of students in the class. He receives impulses from the students, and as the character of these impulses changes from one student group to the other the behavior of the teacher will also change. When making comparisons between teachers who teach in different groups or classes this may be a considerable source of error in the evaluation of effectiveness of the teacher. To avoid this source of error it was found advisable to let the candidates carry out the teaching tasks as they would in ordinary TV teaching. In other words the students for whom the teaching was intented were not actually present during the teaching.

When arranging the investigation in this way a factor which normally influences the teacher's behavior in the classroom, the direct interaction between teacher and students, is taken away, and consequently reservations have to be made when the result of the investigation is related to ordinary teaching situations.

Before the microteaching took place a comprehensive test on social sensitivity and a number of other psychological tests had been given to the candidates.

The teaching performances of all the candidates took place in turn in the same room and under the same conditions. They were all recorded on videotape. By this means it was attempted to avoid sources of error due to variance in the physical setting.

Later the teaching performances were presented to a number of people who were assumed to be competent in educational matters. They were experts in the sense that they had all studied education at the university and had attained a mark in the upper range at the examination in the subject. The performances were also shown to students.

Social sensitivity and evaluation by experts.

The experts were asked to evaluate the teaching performances as indicators of *teaching capability*. All the evaluations took place in the same room and under the same conditions. The result of the evaluation as compared with social sensitivity is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. *TEACHERS' SOCIAL SENSITIVITY AND THEIR TEACHING CAPABILITY AS EVALUATED BY EXPERTS.*

		Teachers' social sensitivity			Sum
		Low	Average	High	
Teachers' capability of teaching as evaluated by experts (N= 16, evaluations pooled)	High		5	4	9
	Average	4	5	3	12
	Low	3	4	1	8
Sum		7	14	8	29

The evaluations of each of the teacher candidates by the 16 experts were pooled, and the pooled results were classified

as high, average, or low. In the same way the scores of the candidates on the test for social sensitivity were classified as high, average, or low.

The table showing the covariation seems to indicate that *the tendency on the part of the educator to react with sensitivity in social situations is a powerful component in his competence as a teacher.* None of the candidates who rank low as regards social sensitivity are evaluated as high in teaching ability. On the other hand only one of the candidates who rank high on social sensitivity is evaluated as low on teaching ability. The correlation between social sensitivity and teaching ability based on the unclassified scores is r = .49.

The experts were also asked to evaluate the *social sensitivity of the teachers.* Their attention was drawn to the ability to put oneself in the place of others and to react with understanding and empathy. They were asked to indicate their impression in accordance with this.

That the social sensitivity of the teacher in some way or other coloured his behavior during his teaching seems evident (Table 2). None of the teachers who had a low score on social sensitivity were rated high by the experts, and none of the teachers who had a high score were rated low. The correlation between sensitivity score and rating of experts turned out to be r = .51.

Table 2. *TEACHERS' SOCIAL SENSITIVITY AND THE EXPERTS' EVALUATION OF THIS.*

		Teachers' social sensitivity			Sum
		Low	Average	High	
Teachers' social sensitivity as evaluated by experts (N= 16, evaluations pooled)	High		4	2	6
	Ave-rage	3	7	6	16
	Low	4	3		7
Sum		7	14	8	29

Experts' opinions about reactions of students.

A major aim of the investigation was to bring to light whether there is any relationship between teacher characteristics and teacher behavior on the one hand and students' evaluation of the teacher and reaction to him on the other. In the light of investigations which we had previously carried out we wanted in particular to clarify whether the teacher's social sensitivity would express itself in the teaching situation and have an effect on the students' conception of the teacher and their reaction to him.

In order to get an impression of this we presented the video-recordings to a number of students from the grade level the teaching was intended for, that is to say the sixth grade of the compulsory school. Altogether 201 students took part. They were divided into groups, and to each of the groups two teaching performances were presented, the one on the Law of Archimedes, the other on the Contour Line system. The presentation was so arranged that the teacher in the second performance was not the same as the one in the first performance. Thus each of the teachers was evaluated by two different groups of students.

After having seen a performance the students were asked to answer a questionnaire about how they liked the teacher and his teaching. They also worked through a semantic differential scale intended to give their reactions to the teacher and his teaching.

The questionnaire had 20 items of a fairly composite nature. The students were asked whether they thought the teacher was kind and pleasant, if he had a sense of humor, if they understood what he had to teach, if he explained well and did what he could to make the teaching understandable, if he used words or expressions that could not be understood, if he moved forward too fast, if the students felt that they learnt a lot and had been well prepared to manage the subject matter, if they thought the teacher taught in a dull way, if the topic was interesting, if they wanted to learn more about it, if they would like to tell father and mother what they had learnt, if the teacher spoke clearly and distinctly, if they thought the teacher knew

much about the topic, if he was well prepared and told them what they would like to know, if they would like to have this teacher in their own class, if he was good at teaching as compared with others, if they would like to have him as their own main teacher.

The object was to get an indication of the students' conception of the teacher both in his role as teacher and as a person.

The same questionnaire was also presented to the experts. In this connection they were not asked to give their personal opinion, but to indicate how they thought the students would react to each of the items in the questionnaire when evaluating the teacher and performance in question. In other words, we tried to get the experts to see the teacher from the point of view of the students and to mark the items as they thought that they would do. The experts were of course not acquainted with the teachers beforehand or with any of the data about them.

When comparing the social sensitivity of the teacher with the experts' assumptions as regards the students' evaluation through the questionnaire we again got a notable relationship, with a correlation of r = .38 (based on unclassified scores). In the opinion of the experts none of the teachers who were low on social sensitivity would be ranked high by the students (Table 3).

Table 3. *TEACHERS' SOCIAL SENSITIVITY AND EXPERTS' ASSUMPTIONS AS REGARDS EVALUATION BY STUDENTS.*

		Teachers' social sensitivity			Sum
		Low	Average	High	
Experts' assumptions as regards evaluation by students (N= 16, assumptions pooled)	High		3	2	5
	Average	3	7	4	14
	Low	4	4	2	10
Sum		7	14	8	29

It seems evident that the social sensitivity of the teachers in some way or other makes itself felt not only in the experts' evaluation according to their own standards, but also when they are trying to make up their minds as to how the students may be expected to react.

The degree to which experts are able to understand students and to pay attention to this in their judgement we had an opportunity to bring out in a direct way, by comparing the students' reactions through the questionnaire with the experts' assumptions as to the nature of these reactions. The result of the comparison is presented in Table 4. Clearly *the relationship is indeed marked.* We find that none of those who are low in the views of the students are assumed by the expert to be evaluated high, and none of those who are considered as high by the students are assumed by the experts to be evaluated low. The correlation is r = .62 (based on unclassified scores).

Table 4. *STUDENTS' REACTIONS THROUGH QUESTIONNAIRE AND EXPERTS' ASSUMPTIONS AS REGARDS THESE REACTIONS.*

		Students' reactions through questionnaire (1)			Sum
		Low	Average	High	
Experts' assumptions as regards students' reactions (N= 16, assumptions pooled)	High		4	1	5
	Ave-rage	4	8	5	17
	Low	3	4		7
Sum		7	16	6	29

(1) Here and in later comparisons the evaluations of the students are classified on the basis of the means of the evaluating groups.

Evaluations by experts and students compared.

Obviously it is to be expected that the students' evaluation of the teachers may differ from that of the experts. Due among other things to differences in experiences and educational insight the criteria underlying the evaluation of the two groups of judges can hardly be the same. On the other hand agreement to some extent is also to be expected, partly because preferences as to teacher characteristics in all likelihood will be the same to some extent in the two groups and partly because the experts must be assumed to pay attention to the interests of the students when making up their minds about the teacher.

In order to clarify to what degree experts and students are in agreement in their evaluation we compared the opinions of the two groups. As a first step the teachers' capability as judged by the experts directly was compared with the students' reactions to the teachers as indicated through the questionnaire. The result is given in Table 5.

Table 5. *CAPABILITY OF TEACHING AS JUDGED BY EXPERTS AND STUDENTS' EVALUATIONS THROUGH THE QUESTIONNAIRE.*

		Students' evaluations through questionnaire			Sum
		Low	Average	High	
Teachers' capability of teaching as evaluated by experts (N= 16, evaluations pooled)	High		6	3	9
	Ave-rage	4	5	3	12
	Low	3	5		8
Sum		7	16	6	29

There is, as we see, *a marked relationship between the evaluations of the experts and the students.* There are 9 teachers who are evaluated as high on teaching capability by the experts. None of these are evaluated as low by the students.

On the other hand there are 8 teachers who are evaluated as low by the experts. None of these are evaluated as high by the students. The correlation based on unclassified scores is r = .66.

As already mentioned the reactions of the students were also investigated by means of a semantic differential scale. If this is used in the comparison here instead of the questionnaire, the correlation proves to be about the same, r = 63.

It appears justified to conclude that there is *a considerable degree of consensus among the experts and the students as regards the suitability of the teacher.*

Social sensitivity and evaluation by students.

We have seen that there is a notable relationship between the teachers' standing as regards social sensitivity and their teaching capability as judged by experts. Also we have observed that the experts' assumptions as to how the students are likely to react, to a great extent correspond to their actual reactions. In the same way we have found a marked degree of correspondence between experts' evaluation of capability and the reactions to the teachers on the part of the students.

With these relationships in mind we will also expect a notable correlation between the social sensitivity of the teachers and the students' reactions to them. If we compare the standing of the teachers as to social sensitivity with the students' reactions through the questionnaire, the expected relationship is clearly brought out. The correlation based on unclassified scores and, as previously, for the two teaching themes taken together is r = . 46, and is thus of the same order as the correlation found between social sensitivity and evaluation of capacity by experts (r = .51).

The relationship is illustrated in Table 6, and in this case not only for the two teaching themes taken together, but also for each of them considered separately. As mentioned earlier, in his second teaching task the teacher was evaluated by a group of students different from the one in the first task. In this sense the evaluations in the two teaching situations are independent.

Table 6. *TEACHERS' SOCIAL SENSITIVITY AND STUDENTS' REACTIONS THROUGH QUESTIONNAIRE.*

			Teachers' social sensitivity			Sum
			Low	Average	High	
Theme: Law of Archimedes	Students' reactions through questionnaire	High		5	1	6
		Average	2	10	5	17
		Low	4	2		6
Sum			6	17	6	29
Theme: Contour Line system	Students' reactions through questionnaire	High		3	3	6
		Average	2	13	2	17
		Low	4	1	1	6
Sum			6	17	6	29
Law of Archimedes and Contour Line system	Students' reactions through questionnaire	High		4	2	6
		Average	2	12	3	17
		Low	4	1	1	6
Sum			6	17	6	29

In spite of the fact that both the teaching theme and the evaluation group is different in the two cases, the trend is obviously the same. In both situations there is a clear relationship between the teacher's social sensitivity and the reaction to him on the part of the students. The teacher who is low on social sensitivity tends to be rated low by the students, and, conversely, the teacher who is high on social sensitivity tends to be rated high or average.

When using the semantic differential scale in the comparison between social sensitivity and student reaction, the relationship

is also clear, even though somewhat less marked. The correlation, the two themes taken together, is r = .32.

On the basis of the findings in these studies it seems justifiable to state *that social sensitivity is an important factor in the teacher's interactions with the students and in the learning process.*

A question which may be raised is whether social sensitivity is of importance irrespective of the intellectual level of the student. A possibility is that students who are confronted with problems in their learning work may be particularly in need of understanding from the teacher and may therefore more than others be inclined to appreciate teachers who are high on social sensitivity.

In order to test this possibility the students' evaluation of the teachers was studied separately for those in the upper range and those in the lower range intellectually. The result is given in Table 7. Both teaching themes are included, and the students' evaluation is expressed by the mean score on the questionnaire.

Table 7. *REACTIONS BY STUDENTS IN THE UPPER RANGE AND STUDENTS IN THE LOWER RANGE INTELLECTUALLY.*

		Intellectual range of students				Total	
		Lower		Upper			
		M	N	M	N	M	N
Teacher's social sensitivity (N=29)	High	138	49	138	50	138	99
	Low	125	49	126	53	125	102
Total		131	98	132	103	131	201

Both for the students in total and for the two subgroups (lower-upper) the score for those with teachers who were high as to social sensitivity is clearly higher than for those with teachers who were low. For the group in total the difference is 13, a little more than half a standard deviation (s = 23), and statistically significant.

There is no definite indication, however, that the teacher's social sensitivity is of less importance to those in the upper intellectual range than to those in the lower.

Students' attitudes and achievement.

So far we have dealt with evaluations of experts and students, not with the outcome of learning in a broader sense. However, the formation of attitudes which takes place in the teaching situation is in itself an important part of the learning process and also an indication of the educational climate being developed and thereby in all likelihood of the progress in learning to be expected.

The students' learning of subject matter during two periods of microteaching, each of 15 minutes, is indeed of a limited nature and can hardly be expected to reveal any marked differences in learning as a result of differences as expressed in the students' reaction to the questionnaire. However, an effort was made to get an impression of this relationship also. An achievement test covering the subject matter taught was developed and given to the students. In Table 8 the achievement results are seen in relation both to the students' intellectual level and their level according to their reactions to the questionnaire. The achievement mean for the total group is 194 and the standard deviation 58.

Table 8. *STUDENTS' ACHIEVEMENT RESULTS IN RELATION TO THEIR INTELLECTUAL LEVEL AND TO THEIR ATTITUDES TO TEACHER AND TEACHING EXPRESSED THROUGH QUESTIONNAIRE.*

		Intellectual level expressed in T scores								Total	
		-39		40-49		50-59		60-			
		M	N	M	N	M	N	M	N	M	N
Students' attitudes to teacher and teaching expressed through questionnaire	164-	134	6	193	2	218	6	253	2	188	16
	132-163	148	10	167	30	199	27	269	18	197	85
	100-131	162	13	173	25	213	33	263	10	199	81
	- 99	113	3	165	9	140	4	252	3	165	19
	Total	148	32	170	66	204	70	265	33	194	201

In some of the cells the number of students is very small, making for chance fluctuations. In spite of this it is clearly brought out that the intellectual factor is an important one. For the total

values and also at most of the attitude levels there is a clear increase in achievement means as we move from lower to higher levels intellectually. The mean of the highest group intellectually (M=265) is more than one standard deviation (s=58) above the mean in total (M=194), and the mean of the lowest group intellectually (M=148) is not far from one standard deviation below the mean in total.

As regards achievement in relation to attitudes as expressed through the questionnaire, the picture is more complicated. However, both for the values in total and at the various intellectual levels, the achievement result at the lowest attitude level is lower, in part notably lower, than at the higher attitude levels. As a matter of fact the total result for this low group as to attitude (M=165) is below the result for the intellectual group 40 - 49 (M=170).

Thus we should be able to conclude that *the students' attitude to the teacher and his teaching not only makes up a part of the students' attitude formation in general, but also has a connection to his learning progress in the cognitive area.*

In this connection it may be mentioned that a direct comparison between the experts' evaluation of the teachers' capability and the achievement results of the students gave a correlation of r = .25. The correspondance was best for those teachers who were evaluated as being low in capability. There were 8 teachers who were rated low as to capability. Only one of these brought their students up to a high level in the achievement test.

Concluding remarks.

We have discussed social sensitivity as a factor in the teaching process from different angles both theoretically and empirically. Whatever the angle of analysis, we have obtained clear indications that social sensitivity is a characteristic of the teacher which appears to be important for the students' reaction to the teacher in his teaching role and as a person.

Lack of well-being, rejection of the school, and problem behavior are so frequent phenomena in school today that they cause uneasiness.

The reasons for this situation are many. The organization of the school, its content, requirements and working methods are important

factors. But in addition the teacher himself, his qualifications, his attitudes to the students and his behavior in the classroom are also highly influential in shaping the students' attitudes and the learning process. In particular, social sensitivity seems to be a crucial teacher characteristic.

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RESUME

Sensivité social comme facteur du processus d'enseignement. Une discussion théorique et une contribution expérimentale.

On avance l'idée que l'enseignant doit être hautement qualifié, et même très hautement ou au dessus des étudiants en ce qui concerne les capacités et les caractéristiques de réaction qu'il est supposé développer chez les étudiants. Des arguments en faveur de cette vérité sont trouvés dans les théories qui soutiennent la thérapie de développement du comportement, avec une référence particulière à la conception de modellage, et aussi dans la théorie sur laquelle est fondée la thérapie centrée sur le client. On a tiré l'attention sur des enquêtes précédentes, montrant que la sensitivité sociale est une caractéristique essentielle de l'enseignant. La plannification et les résultats concernant l'effet de la sensitivité sociale sont présentés.
Deux taches de "micro-teaching", destinées à des élèves du 6ième degré furent élaborés par 29 éducateurs à l'absence des étudiants.

Les performances furent notés au video et présentés plus tard aux élèves du 6ième degré et à des experts d'évaluation. Il fut clair qu'il y a un haut degré de correspondance entre le niveau de sensitivité sociale de l'éducateur et la réaction qu'il déclenche contre lui dans une telle situation par étudiants et experts. La sensitivité sociale est un fort indicateur et caractéristique d'éducateur.

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CONTEMPORARY PROBLEMS IN EDUCATION: NORTHERN IRELAND AS ILLUSTRATION

by

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Although Northern Ireland is a small country, its educational system offers interesting examples of problems found in many countries at present. Yet Northern Ireland has distinctive characteristics which make us wonder whether solutions proposed elsewhere are likely to lead to good results if introduced into this particular system. Two important problems it exemplifies are (1) the introduction of comprehensive secondary education (2) segregation of school pupils in denominational schools.

Firstly, let us note some of the characteristics of the country. The population is about 1½ million; the only really sizeable city is Belfast, with nearly half a million inhabitants. Next in size comes Newtownabbey, which is an agglomeration of smaller communities on the outskirts of Belfast rather than a distinct city: Londonderry, with its 50,000 people, is really the only other major population centre. Otherwise the population lives in small towns and villages. There is still much of the rural way of life evident in the background of the people; they do not have an urbanised outlook. And, although news bulletins during recent years would not suggest this, those who visit or live in Northern Ireland find it a friendly place.

The educational system of Northern Ireland came into existence with the partition of the island in 1920. Education became - for the six counties of Northern Ireland - the responsibility of the Northern Ireland government at Stormont, Belfast; the Minister of Education for Northern Ireland was in control, aided by a staff of civil servants. But during the recent troubles new legislation was introduced and a

Northern Ireland Assembly replaced the former government; this new body was short-lived; it was prorogued in 197- and by the Northern Ireland Act of 1974, powers to govern the country were given to the Secretary of State for Northern Ireland - i.e. the country is governed directly from Westminster where the Secretary of State for Northern Ireland is a member of the British Cabinet. He is assisted by four junior ministers (two Ministers of State and two Parliamentary Under Secretaries of State): one of these Ministers of State has responsibility for Health, Social Services and Education in Northern Ireland. The work of the civil servants, however, continues much as before, the former Ministry of Education, Northern Ireland, having now become the Department of Education, Northern Ireland. Local administration of education is the responsibility of five Education and Library Boards.[1]

(1) Comprehensive school problems.

The educational system of Northern Ireland has, during the fifty-odd years of its existence, been greatly influenced by the English educational system - and to some extent by the Scottish system, since there has been considerable exchange of population between Scotland and N.Ireland and in many ways the attitudes - and sometimes the accents - of the Northern Irish and the Scots are similar. Like so many other countries N.Ireland has found itself confronted in recent years by the demand to democratise secondary education. But although the Education Act of 1947 in Northern Ireland was in many respects like the English Education Act of 1944 it did not give scope for development of comprehensive schools. Free secondary education for all was to be provided by a tri-partite system of grammar schools, technical schools and 'secondary intermediate' schools (equivalent to the English secondary modern school and educating the majority of the population other than those gifted academically or technically). The complication in Northern Ireland was that the great majority of grammar (academic) secondary schools were not provided by local education authorities but by voluntary organisations, and indeed even now there are only 22 publicly provided grammar schools and 57 voluntary grammar schools, some provided by the Roman Catholic Church, others by organisations mainly Protestant in affiliation - though not under

church control. The government decided to use what facilities were there. A system of selection at 11+ was established, consisting initially of papers in English and Arithmetic and an Intelligence Test whose importance varied from time to time: and an agreement was entered into by which the voluntary fee-paying grammar schools, in return for financial help of various kinds, agreed to reserve 80% of their places for 'qualified' pupils (who had 'passed' the selection procedure); paying these pupils' fees became the responsibility of the local education authorities. The remaining voluntary grammar school places could be filled at the school's discretion by non-qualified pupils whose parents were ready to pay the fees. A few grammar schools were unwilling to commit themselves to reserving 80% of their places for qualified pupils but agreed, in return for a lesser amount of financial aid, to accept some qualified pupils whose fees would be paid by local authorities. The result of having some places available for fee-paying, non-qualified pupils in grammar schools has been to provide what some parents regard as a 'safety valve' to put right weaknesses of the selection procedure. Moreover, it has been recognised that a fee-paying child who proves successful, over a period of time, in the work of the grammar school thus gives proof of being really 'qualified'; so at a later stage such children can be officially recognised as qualified and the responsibility for paying their fees taken over by the local authority. It is possibly a unique system; not without a logic of its own; it gives freedom of choice to <u>some</u> parents; and has given some children a second chance to show their ability. But it is not regarded as democratic in contemporary interpretations of the word. Can a solution to this problem be found ? The Burges Report[2] of 1973 recommended that the secondary school system should be reconstructed and selection at 11+ for grammar schools or secondary intermediate schools should be abolished (the technical schools had meanwhile been gradually phased out of existence). (It is, incidentally, interesting to note the linguistic development in naming schools. In the post-war period it seemed necessary to emphasise that intermediate schools provided secondary, not elementary, education; so they were called 'secondary intermediate'. But as 'secondary' was the more prestigious term, they gradually

became known as simply 'secondary' schools - with the curious result that now it seems incorrect to refer to grammar (academic) schools as secondary schools, that description having been annexed by the newer type of secondary schooling. This linguistic oddity can cause considerable confusion in discussions between English and Northern Ireland educators, teachers or pupils.)
Some 'quasi-comprehensive' schools have come into existence; they are secondary schools which have developed academic courses for O and A level examinations for some pupils; and in a few cases a local authority has set up a comprehensive system in part of its area, having a junior high school for all between ages 11 and 14 in the district, with a high school for the upper age levels. But for the government there is the problem of how to transform into comprehensive schools a large number of voluntary schools which, though receiving the greater part of their finance from public sources, are not under government control. Financial pressures might be applied; but there is still strong feeling both for and against the idea of comprehensive schools. Various pressure groups responded to the government's consultative paper in 1976[3]; many teachers favour the comprehensive system; but parents and former pupils of grammar schools rally to the defence of the established grammar schools. It remains to be seen whether the Department of Education will succeed in transforming the existing selective bi-partite system into a comprehensive system - or whether resistance to such a move will be reinforced by the change of government at Westminster this year and some disillusionment in other parts of the United Kingdom about some aspects of comprehensive schools.
Meanwhile, in view of the refusal of teachers to co-operate in the former 11+ procedure there is now a compromise system of 'banding', schools having quotas of pupils to be accepted within the various bands. Primary schools are responsible for grading pupils at the end of the primary school and parents express their preference as to the secondary school they want their children to attend but admission depends on the school. (Again, a side-light on names and labels: administrators opted for what seemed neutral designations in primary school grading - the top 10% were to be designated as category P; the next 10%, Q; then 40% R; and the remainder S. Some teacher-parents reported that

their children came home from school that day saying the new system was quite clear: "P means you're Perfect, Q means you're Quite Good, R means you're in the Reserves and S means you're Stupid!")
So generally the move towards a more comprehensive approach has not yet been decisive.

(2) Religious segregation of schools.

A comprehensive school would presumably include children of different faiths. But the Northern Ireland school system has divisions other than those between academic and less academic schools. In this country, as in so many others, a dual system of schools has arisen because of religious differences. The public schools are officially non-denominational but because of their history and the background of the great majority of the children who attend them, they are regarded as Protestant. Religious education is given in them but teachers have the right to refuse to give it and parents have the right to withdraw their children from it. But the Catholic children in Northern Ireland, as in other countries where the public system is non-denominational or secular, attend Roman Catholic schools established by that Church. And as in some other countries there has been a gradual development in providing public finance to support these schools so that now about 85 % of costs is so provided; the amount of aid and the willingness of Catholic Schools to accept it - since it has involved willingness to accept minority representation of the public authorities on the managing bodies of the schools - is in itself a fascinating piece of local history.[4] But greater acceptance has come since the mid-1960s so that by 1976, at primary level, there were 583 'controlled' (i.e. provided by the local education authority) schools and 527 voluntary schools of which 510 were 'maintained' (i.e. receiving most of their costs from public sources, and accepting minority public representation on their management committees). At secondary level there were 90 'controlled' secondary intermediate schools and 92 voluntary 'maintained' schools. The grammar school situation is, as we have seen, different since there being 'voluntary' does not imply necessarily church control; but the voluntary grammar schools of both religious affiliations have entered into

agreements by which they receive public financial aid and accept public representation (again minority proportions) on their governing bodies.

The division is not absolute at either primary or secondary level; there are cases of Protestant children attending Catholic schools and of Catholic children attending 'Protestant' schools though such cases have much reduced recently and the latter situation has been discouraged by the Catholic authorities. There are also some teachers who teach in schools not of their own religious outlook. But such 'crossing of the lines' occurs only in a minority of cases, though a good development in teacher education has been the possibility for students to do teaching practice in a school not of their own religious denomination. Do the schools differ greatly in the education they give ? Obviously they have much in common -e.g. in that they prepare secondary school pupils for the same external examinations. But some differences in the 'culture' they transmit are evident. Most evidently they differ in the teaching of religion. In Northern Ireland as elsewhere it is claimed for the Catholic schools that they can enable religion to permeate the whole of the school week, instead of confining it to one or two periods on the timetable. Certainly, with teachers of the same religious outlook it is to be expected that interpretation of situations arising in, e.g. literature or history, will be characteristic of the religious faith held. But it is not always clear whether all schools are equally succesful in maintaining a religious atmosphere. One has the impression that Catholic girls' schools are rather more likely than boys' at least to observe more frequently the formalities of prayer at the beginning or end of lessons. But in some cases attempts are made in schools to include in religious education information about other faiths; in such cases the popular superstitions about people of the 'other' (Catholic or Protestant) faith may be reduced; but probably actual mixing with the 'others' would be more efficacious. Attempts have also been made by Protestant and Catholic educators to agree on an exam syllabus to deal at least with the knowledge aspects of some religious teaching.
The other most commonly cited differences in school cultures are

in the teaching of history and the Irish language. For long it has been alleged that the Catholic schools teach Irish history and the 'Protestant' schools teach British history. There has been some truth in the statement; certainly the syllabus followed in the public schools is very similar to that followed in schools in England - some Northern Ireland Protestant parents and children have complained at being deprived of their Irish heritage in growing up without knowledge of events and heroes in Ireland. At times it has been said that some Catholic teachers were presenting a biased view of history, emphasising wrongs inflicted by the English on a suffering country; others have avoided teaching history, to avoid bias. On many occasions complaints have been made about the lack of satisfactory history textbooks. But this situation has improved.[5] A conference at Dundalk in 1965 produced fruitful discussion among historians concerning these problems and balanced, reliable history books have become available for school use. The broadcasting services have also contributed helpful programmes for schools of both types; one highly successful early presentation of this kind was the BBC production of *Today and Yesterday in Northern Ireland*.
The teaching of Irish in the Catholic schools has presented a whole host of problems. It has aimed at giving children an awareness of their Irish heritage and, presumably, a feeling of unity with the population of the Republic of Ireland. (Incidentally, many Protestants who also cherish their Irish heritage have regretted that Irish has not been available as an optional language in the public schools of Northern Ireland. Latterly such teaching has been offered in at least one 'Protestant' grammar school; and it is a popular subject in adult education classes.)
But in teaching Irish in Catholic schools there has been the problem of finding suitable textbooks. Those available have been generally produced for teaching in the South of Ireland and designed for younger age groups than the secondary school pupils in the North. There are also some differences of dialect between the southern provinces and Ulster so that the purist teacher may wish to make some changes in the texts. But especially there has been, at least till recently, a slowness to use modern methods of teaching - all too often Irish has been taught as a dead language. In the Republic itself the attempt to make the population bi-lingual

has not been noted for its success; English has remained dominant for the majority.[6] In the North, with even less reinforcement in life outside the school, the teaching of Irish seems to have even less chance of success - though for some pupils it has been an important element in the curriculum, reinforced by visits to the Gaeltacht in the Republic where it is the medium of communication. But in North and South alike there is the problem common to other countries with a choice of language; the greater usefulness of a world language (English) opposed by the symbolic value of a national language which is not the home language of the majority of citizens. There is also the point that if Irish is learned as the first foreign language and if, as has often happened, grammar schools lay weight on the study of Latin, pupils are unlikely to have the chance to learn a European language like French, German, Spanish, Italian and this, in the present moves towards a European Community, is especially regrettable. In the less academic'secondary' schools most pupils will attempt only one foreign language; so in Northern Ireland there has been a move towards the study of French for such pupils.

Even in extracurricular activities there may be differences. In Catholic schools pupils learn to play characteristic Irish games - Irish football, shinty, camogey - though the attractions of the other types of football are strong. So while there is some mixing in sports, there is also, for some school pupils, competition only in the sports common to their own type of school; and in athletics there has been an unhappy division fostered by some associations.

Other curricular differences may develop informally, or by emphases in the choice of art, music and literature to be studied. Contacts with teachers, their casual comments on current affairs or other matters, are important forms of learning. Yet such influence of teachers is an aspect of life in schools which it is difficult to measure and assess objectively.

But in all, the differences in curriculum seem to be relatively minor. What is of major importance is the learning that occurs in the home environment, the home's interpretation of the Northern Ireland situation. And here the simple fact of segregation of the children in separate schools is effective since it gives less opportunity for discovering, by contact with those of different backgrounds, how true or how false is the view presented by the

home when those of the other religion are discussed; it prevents also the awareness of how 'the others' interpret the situation all live in.

Yet segregation in education is not absolute. In some forms of education young people mix irrespective of their religious background. The technical schools and colleges of the country have long been interdenominational - possibly because of the higher costs of such education and possibly also because such education is given at an age when parents and churches may be less concerned about the dangers of proselytism. In the universities (the Queen's University of Belfast, which dates from the nineteenth century, and the post-world-war-II New University of Ulster at Coleraine) and in the Ulster Polytechnic (also a recent foundation) young people of all religions or no religion meet to study together. For some it is the first opportunity to get to know someone of the "other" religion. This is an advantage of higher education and it is good that the nineteenth century anxieties which led to the establishment of *two* departments of philosophical studies in Queen's University (one is the Department of Scholastic Philosophy) did not have further consequences of that kind.

But in some teacher education separation still occurs. Students taking the one-year postgraduate course of teacher education at Queen's University or following undergraduate studies in Education in the New University of Ulster are mixed as to religious affiliations. But the training of primary school teachers has since the beginning of the Northern Ireland state taken place in the Ministry (now Department) of Education College, Stranmillis - which has thus been regarded as the Protestant training institution - while Roman Catholic students have been trained in St.Mary's and St.Joseph's Colleges (for women and men students, respectively). The development of the B.Ed.degree, validated by Queen's University, and of a postgraduate training course in the Colleges, has meant some co-ordination and closer contacts between the Colleges; but basically their students are still separated. And for those wishing to teach in a 'religious' school there is of course pressure to train in a denominational institution.

Naturally, in the present times of civic troubles, there has been renewed attention to the question which has been keenly debated in other countries also (notably the U.S.A. and France) - does a dual school system produce a divided society or contribute to social divisions? And if it may do so, could the situation be improved by desegregating the school population?

If we consider the various groups of people who would be concerned in such a move, we find various responses. Perhaps surprisingly, the majority of the population have indicated, in public opinion polls within the last two decades, that they do favour desegregated schools; sub-groups of course varied in opinions - the young and better educated tending to be more in favour of having all children attend common schools. The attitudes of children themselves have also shown support for such a proposal, so far as research studies can judge; again, there are differences within sub-groups, with girls more favourably disposed than boys, and - perhaps oddly - Catholics more in favour than Protestants (the least favourably disposed being 14-year-old Protestant boys); (though it is not easy to judge from minor researches).

The main churches show a range of opinion, from Methodists in favour of integration of schools through Presbyterian and Church of Ireland views (favourable but with some reservations) to Roman Catholic opinion which is not in favour of unifying the schools though concerned to promote meeting and friendly relations in extra-curricular activities.

One of the problems, both for churchmen and the public in general, is that of the "mixed" marriage. Parents who are genuinely unprejudiced about those of other faiths would still be unhappy about their son or daughter making a marriage which would cause social difficulties (or worse) in the troubled conditions of the present (much would depend here on the class and neighbourhood of the family - in some neighbourhoods, the young couple would be ill-advised to try and settle). Others would be grieved at the thought that their children's children might be of another faith; here the attitude of the Roman Catholic church as to a parent's

duty to bring up children in the Catholic faith has certainly - while comprehensible - proved a stumbling block in the acceptance of mixed marriages. Now schools are often the place in which future marriage partners are found - among schoolmates or among their brothers and sisters. So some people view desegregation of schools as possibly leading to an increase in problems of mixed marriages.

Teachers would be among those most closely affected by desegregation of schools. Some research has indicated that although teachers of both religious backgrounds are in favour of desegregation in principle, they have some reservations about possible implementation of desegregation. There is some lack of knowledge about teachers in the 'other' schools and some stereotyping of the ethos characterising the other schools, Catholics seeing Protestant schools as 'cold, formal' and Protestants seeing Catholic schools as clergy-dominated.[7] The position of teachers who are members of religious orders is also regarded as needing special consideration, both by school authorities and by parents. Nevertheless, teachers in schools have made admirable efforts to reduce the bad effects of existing segregation. They have participated in organising school camps and conferences where their pupils can meet in a harmonious atmosphere; pupils have participated in joint projects and study groups. From within the schools has come evidence of the wish to break down barriers caused by segregation and to increase understanding. - One of the most disheartening aspects of the civic troubles has been for teachers who had thought that school teaching had diminished prejudice and hostility to discover that the old enmities encouraged by home or neighbourhood were still alive and strong.

There might also be practical difficulties in desegregating some schools. In Belfast and Londonderry, given the segregated nature of housing in many districts, the neighbourhood school would tend to be largely attended by pupils of one denomination; a new form of bussing might be necessary to overcome such a problem and American experience does not suggest that this solution is widely acceptable. But the problem does not seem major. More complicated would be the transfer of school buildings or property to a common administration; yet, given goodwill, this problem conceivably

might be solved.

The whole problem is one of goodwill. Whether the unification of schools would solve a problem which is more political than religious is debatable. Certainly in Ireland in the nineteenth century the attempt was made to have a common system of schools for children of the different religious groups; the National Board of Commissioners tried heroically to establish these elementary schools. The attempt failed because of virulent opposition by some clergy and laymen of both the Protestant and Catholic churches. Possibly times have changed for the better. But it is clear that the root of the problem is not in the school system but in society outside the school. Home and neighbourhood have more effect here - as in other countries - in developing the attitudes of the new generations. If home and neigbourhood, society as a whole, could accept unification of the schools the need for that unification would no longer be so great. In this way we come once more to the conclusion that school reflects society in Northern Ireland as in other countries; in the face of opposition by the traditions of strong social groups, it is too much to hope that schools alone could radically change society.

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RESUME:

Problèmes contemporains en éducation: l'Irlande du Nord comme illustration.

Le système d'éducation de l'Irlande du Nord existe depuis 1920. Bien que le pays soit petit, le système peut être une illustration intéressante pour des problèmes qui concernent également d'autres pays, notamment (1) le problème de la démocratisation de l'enseignement secondaire par la création d'écoles 'comprehensives' (du type CES), (2) la division des élèves dans les écoles confessionnelles et les écoles publiques. (1) La législation de 1947 a créé un système de lycées (grammar schools), collèges techniques et collèges modernes (intermediate schools) qui donnerait l'éducation secondaire gratuite à toute la population scolaire. Mais la plupart des 'grammar schools' n'appartenaient pas aux autorités municipales ou à l'état, mais à des organisations bénévoles (dont certaines sont confessionnelles). Ces organisations ont convenu avec le gouvernement de garder la majorité des places dans leurs écoles/lycées pour des élèves sélectionnés par examen, dont les frais de scolarité seraient payés par les autorités municipales. Mais elles ont gardé aussi une minorité de places pour des élèves non-qualifiés pour qui les parents veulent payer les frais de scolarité. A présent l'opinion publique et le gouvernement semblent favoriser le remplacement de ce système par un système d'écoles 'comprehensives' (du type CES) pour tous les élèves, doués et moins doués. Mais des groupes de parent , de professeurs et d'anciens élèves s'opposent à ce changement et le problème reste de savoir si le gouvernement peut persuader aux organisations qui possèdent la majorité des 'grammar schools'/lycées d'accepter un tel changement. (2) Comme dans d'autres pays, les enfants catholiques vont presque tous aux écoles confessionnelles sous le contrôle de l'église catholique (mais subventionnées largement par les autorités municipales et par l'état) tandis que les autres enfants sont élèves des écoles publiques. On peut trouver dans les deux systèmes d'écoles des différences dans l'enseignement de la religion, de l'histoire, de la littérature, des sports, et surtout dans la provision pour l'enseignement de la langue irlandaise dans les écoles catholiques. On trouve des arguments pour et contre ces différences mais on se demande si la ségrégation des élèves dans les deux systèmes peut contribuer aux désordres civiques qui affligent le pays à présent. On trouve des arguments pour et contre l'unification des écoles; mais l'influence de la famille et de la société semble plus forte que celle de l'école en ce qui concerne les attitudes civiques.

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